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ART. I. *Marmion;* a Tale of Flodden-field. By Walter Scott, Esq. 4to. pp. 500. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable; London, Miller, &c. 1808.

FROM the novelty of its style and subject, and from the spirit of its execution, Mr. Scott's "Lay of the last Minstrel" kindled a sort of enthusiasm among all classes of readers; and the concurrent voice of the public assigned to it a very exalted rank, which, on more cool and dispassionate examination, its numerous essential beauties will enable it to maintain. For vivid richness of colouring and truth of costume, many of its descriptive pictures stand almost unrivalled: it carries us back in imagination to the time of action; and we wander with the poet along Tweed-side, or among the wild glades of Ettricke Forest.

Perhaps this is the highest merit of poetry; and to this praise Mr. Scott is most undoubtedly intitled in an eminent degree. His faults, however, are at least equally numerous, if not equally striking, with his excellences. His fable is generally abrupt, obscure, and, abstracted from the charms of poetry, uninteresting. No proportion of means to effects is observed in the machinery or in the circumstances. The versification, though flowing and easy, is often (we had almost said) *shamefully* incorrect; and not unfrequently, in the midst of the most splendid passage, we are shocked by an unmusical line, or series of lines, deficient in every characteristic of poetry except rhyme, and sometimes even in that mechanical qualification.—To these blemishes it may be added that the author carries even his beauties to a faulty excess; that his descriptions of natural scenery are repeated to tediousness; that his knowlege of the manners of former ages occasionally betrays him into pedantry; and that even the proper names of places, which convey a peculiar charm to ears that have been versed in the antient Scottish minstrelsy, are sprinkled so thickly and often with so little meaning as to make the reader, though delighted at first, begin at last to

suspect a trick, and to take offence at that which, if managed with a sparing hand, might have been made a source of unmixed pleasure and approbation.

These are the principal faults of Mr. Scott, to which the general pre-eminence of his former poem almost blinded his readers; and of all these, his extreme carelessness was undoubtedly the most material and the least excusable. We regard it as no extenuation of this error, that in so many successive editions of the work he has chosen to adopt a motto * which, expressing his consciousness of the fact, evinces a blameable spirit of defiance or of indifference to the censure occasioned by it. On the contrary, it more peculiarly behoved him to have studied a greater degree of correctness in any future publication: yet even in the volume before us, in the epistle to Mr. William Erskine, which he styles an introduction to his third Canto, he not only acknowleges the same error, but asserts rather than excuses his perseverance in it.

Were it requisite to state our opinion of the comparative merits of this and the former poem, we should probably say that the peculiar beauties of each are almost equally balanced; that in Marmion the fable is more interesting, and the delineation of character and manners still more strongly and faithfully portrayed; that, on the other hand, we are gratified by fewer touches of pathos, and fewer marks of genuine poetical enthusiasm; in short, that, as a whole, it is superior,—but that, taken to pieces, it presents much less that is worthy of our admiration, or that can excite and interest our affections. With regard to the faults, most of those which we have noticed as inherent in the "Lay of the last Minstrel" are observable, to a much greater degree, in Marmion. The story is so obscure, owing to the abrupt manner in which the several parts are connected together, that it requires a clear head to comprehend it at a single reading; and the instances of incorrect language and slovenly versification become frequent and gross to a most unpardonable extent.

Mr. Scott was justly proud of the applause bestowed on those charming pieces of poetry with which he has adorned the openings of his several Cantos, in the Minstrel's Lay. There they were naturally introduced, and interrupted the interest of the reader no more than the little breaks and pauses of a real narration, or than the intervals between the acts of a pathetic tragedy. Surely, however, an extraordinary defect of judgment has led him, in the present tale,

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" * *Dum relego, scripsisse pudet, quia plurima cerno*
Me quoque, qui feci, judice, digna limi."

to extend these pauses to a length almost commensurate with the several Cantos of the poem itself; more especially as no artifice connects them with the main body of the work. The same effect is thus produced as if, having written six epistles to as many friends, on various subjects, and chusing to print them together with a poem of greater magnitude, he had whimsically inserted one of the epistles between every four or five hundred lines of the tale itself.

The "chance and change" of nature,—the vicissitudes which are observable in the moral as well as the physical part of the creation,—have given occasion to more exquisite poetry than any other general subject. The author had before made ample use of the sentiments suggested by these topics; yet he is not satisfied, but begins again with the same in his first epistle, (or introduction to the first Canto,) addressed to Mr. William Stewart Rose. The lines are certainly pleasing: but they fall, in our estimation, far below that beautiful simile of the Tweed which he has introduced into his former poem. The Αι αι ταυ μαλακαι of Moschus is, however, worked up again to some advantage in the following passage:

'To mute and to material things
New life revolving summer brings;
The genial call dead Nature hears,
And in her glory re-appears.
But oh! my country's wintery state
What second spring shall renovate?
What powerful call shall bid arise
The buried warlike, and the wise?
The mind, that thought for Britain's weal,
The hand, that grasped the victor steel?
The vernal sun new life bestows
Even on the meanest flower that blows;
But vainly, vainly, may he shine,
Where Glory weeps o'er NELSON's shrine;
And vainly pierce the solemn gloom,
That shrouds, O PITT, thy hallowed tomb!'

Nothing can be more awful and affecting than the consideration that, within the short period of twelve months, England lost three of the greatest characters recorded in her annals; that two of the number, engaged during more than twenty years in the most perilous political warfare, now sleep in peace by the side of each other; and that their departure has left us in a state of vacuity almost unexampled in the history of the nation. We could have easily pardoned Mr. Scott for being seduced, by the attraction of such a subject: but we cannot forgive his stepping out of the way merely to furnish us with three or

four pages of such common-place declamation as, had it been sufficiently sonorous, might have been recited with great effect before the subscribers to the Literary Fund, but, being as deficient in sound as in sense, is equally unfit for public applause and for private gratification.

The second epistle opens again with "chance and change:" but it cannot be denied that the mode in which it is introduced is new and poetical. The comparison of Ettricke forest, now open and naked, with the state in which it once was,—covered with wood, the favourite resort of the royal hunt, and the refuge of daring outlaws,—leads the poet to imagine an antient thorn gifted with the powers of reason, and relating the various scenes which it has witnessed during a period of three hundred years. A melancholy train of fancy is naturally encouraged by the idea:

'When, musing on companions gone,
We doubly feel ourselves alone,
Something, my friend, we yet may gain,
There is a pleasure in this pain:
It soothes the love of lonely rest,
Deep in each gentler heart impressed.
'Tis silent amid worldly toils,
And stifled soon by mental broils;
But, in a bosom thus prepared,
Its still small voice is often heard,
Whispering a mingled sentiment,
'Twixt resignation and content.
Oft in my mind such thoughts awake,
By lone St. Mary's silent lake;
Thou know'st it well,—nor fen, nor sedge,
Pollute the pure lake's crystal edge;
Abrupt and sheer, the mountains sink
At once upon the level brink;
And just a trace of silver sand
Marks where the water meets the land.
Far in the mirror, bright and blue,
Each hill's huge outline you may view,
Shaggy with heath, but lonely bare,
Nor tree, nor bush, nor brake is there,
Save where, of land, yon slender line
Bears thwart the lake the scattered pine.
Yet even this nakedness has power,
And aids the feeling of the hour:
Nor thicket, dell, nor copse you spy,
Where living thing concealed might lie;
Nor point, retiring, hides a dell,
Where swain, or woodman lone, might dwell;
There's nothing left to fancy's guess,
You see that all is loneliness:

And silence aids—though these steep hills
Send to the lake a thousand rills;
In summer tide, so soft they weep,
The sound but lulls the ear asleep;
Your horse's hoof-tread sounds too rude,
So stilly is the solitude.'

A few of the lines which follow breathe as true a spirit of peace and repose, as even the simple strains of our venerable Walton:

'If age had tamed the passions' strife,
And fate had cut my ties to life,
Here, have I thought, 'twere sweet to dwell,
And rear again the chaplain's cell,
Like that same peaceful hermitage,
Where Milton longed to spend his age.
'Twere sweet to mark the setting day,
On Bourhope's lonely top decay;
And, as it faint and feeble died,
On the broad lake, and mountain's side,
To say, "Thus pleasures fade away;
Youth, talents, beauty, thus decay,
And leave us dark, forlorn, and grey;"—
Then gaze on Dryhope's ruined tower,
And think on Yarrow's faded Flower:
And when that mountain-sound I heard,
Which bids us be for storm prepared,
The distant rustling of his wings,
As up his force the Tempest brings,
'Twere sweet, ere yet his terrors rave,
To sit upon the Wizard's grave;
That Wizard Priest's, whose bones are thrust
From company of holy dust;
On which no sun-beam ever shines—
(So superstition's creed divines,)
Thence view the lake, with sullen roar,
Heave her broad billows to the shore,
And mark the wild swans mount the gale,
Spread wide through mist their snowy sail,
And ever stoop again, to lave
Their bosoms on the surging wave:
Then, when, against the driving hail,
No longer might my plaid avail,
Back to my lonely home retire,
And light my lamp, and trim my fire:
There ponder o'er some mystic lay,
Till the wild tale had all its sway,
And, in the bittern's distant shriek,
I heard unearthy voices speak,
And thought the Wizard Priest was come,
To claim again his ancient home!

And bade my busy fancy range,
To frame him fitting shape and strange,
Till from the task my brow I cleared,
And smiled to think that I had feared.

'But chief, 'twere sweet to think such life,
(Though but escape from fortune's strife,)
Something most matchless good, and wise,
A great and grateful sacrifice;
And deem each hour, to musing given,
A step upon the road to heaven.'

With regard to the other introductory epistles, it may suffice to observe that none of them are, in our opinion, equally poetical with that which we have just mentioned. "Chance and change" are still, more or less, the subject of all; and it is somewhat remarkable that five, out of the six, commence with a winter-piece.

We now attend to the poem itself; the fable of which we shall analyze previously to pointing out those peculiarities which must be noticed in order to justify our preceding censure.

The hero is a purely fictitious character,—an English Baron in high credit at the court of Harry the Eighth, who is sent by his sovereign to inquire into the reason of the hostile preparations made by James the Fourth of Scotland. He is first introduced to us on his arrival at Norham Castle, where he is hospitably welcomed by Sir Hugh Heron, the Commander of the place, and lodged for the night. The description of his person is very picturesque:

'Along the bridge Lord Marmion rode,
Proudly his red-roan charger trod,
His helm hung at the saddle bow;
Well, by his visage, you might know
He was a stalworth knight, and keen,
And had in many a battle been;
The scar on his brown cheek revealed
A token true of Bosworth field;
His eye-brow dark, and eye of fire,
Shewed spirit proud, and prompt to ire;
Yet lines of thought upon his cheek,
Did deep design and counsel speak.
His forehead, by his casque worn bare,
His thick moustache, and curly hair,
Coal-black, and grizzled here and there,
But more through toil than age;
His square-turned joints, and strength of limb,
Shewed him no carpet knight so trim,
But, in close fight, a champion grim,
In camps, a leader sage.'

His

His accoutrements and retinue are painted with equal spirit, and equal attention to character; and the description of his entertainment at the castle, which occupies the largest part of the canto, transports the reader to the scene which is represented, and makes him in imagination a partaker of the old baronial state and merriment. Marmion demands a guide to conduct him to Edinburgh, and is answered:

> "For such like need, my lord, I trow,
> Norham can find you guides enow;
> For here be some have pricked as far,
> On Scottish ground, as to Dunbar;
> Have drunk the monks of St. Bothan's ale,
> And driven the beeves of Lauderdale;
> Harried the wives of Greenlaw's goods,
> And given them light to set their hoods."—

Marmion expresses his admiration of the qualifications of his proposed conductors,—but prudently reflects that, as he is going on a message of peace, it would be better to be seen in more peaceable company. He therefore solicits a less dangerous associate:

> 'A Herald were my fitting guide,
> Or Friar, sworn in peace to bide;
> Or Pardoner, or travelling Priest,
> Or strolling Pilgrim, at the least.'

This request produces some very lively satirical verses on the manners of the clergy. One friar, who would otherwise have answered the purpose to admiration, is fully as quarrelsome as the jolly 'Harriers of the Wives of Greenlaw's goods:'— the chaplain of the castle has never been seen since the last siege, which induced him to abandon his flock and take up a more secure residence in one of the stalls of Durham cathedral:—

> 'Our Norham Vicar, woe betide,
> Is all too well in case to ride;'—

and Friar John of Tilmouth, the fittest of all men. has had *private* reasons for keeping snug on this side of Tweed, ever since he was found *shrieving* the Wife of old Bughtrig. In this extremity, a Palmer, who, after having visited all the most celebrated shrines on the continent, happens to be at that moment lodged in the castle of Norham on his way to Saint Andrew's, and is perfectly well acquainted with every step of the road, is chosen for the purpose required. As this personage is one of the most essential characters in the history, it becomes necessary, in order to make our accoun

more clear, to mention some preceding events which, in the poem itself, are but partially revealed before the final denouement.

Some years previous to the period at which the tale opens, Lord Marmion had seduced a nun of Fontevraud, named Constance de Beverley; who, having fled with him from her convent, continued to attend him in the disguise of a page. Her faithless lover, however, afterward grows enamoured of the person and possessions of Clara de Clare, sole heiress of the great house of Gloucester, at that time betrothed to Ralph de Wilton, a noble English Baron, whose disgrace and death become necessary to the accomplishment of Marmion's purpose. With this view, he accuses de Wilton of treason before the king, forges a correspondence between him and the enemies of the state, and, overcoming him in the duel which he fights to prove the truth of his assertions, leaves him (as is supposed) dead on the field. De Wilton survives, however, unknown to his rival: but, his guilt being adjudged to be clearly proved, he finds himself condemned to wander about the world in the disguise of a Palmer, and, as such, is at last appointed in the manner above related to accompany Lord Marmion to Edinburgh. His gloomy and mysterious character (for he contrives, in course, to keep his real person concealed from his enemy,) forms one of the principal points of interest in the subsequent part of the story.

Meanwhile, Clara, having lost her lover, refuses to become the wife of his enemy, and, in order to avoid his persecutions, flies to the convent of Whitby. Constance, whose jealousy is worked up to a pitch of phrenzy by Marmion's persevering pursuit of his new mistress, endeavours to put her out of the way by poison; and Marmion, having discovered and thwarted her design, sends her to the monastery of Lindisfarne, where he commends her (still disguised "in man's attire," as Mr. Braham says,) to the protection of the blind abbot of Saint Cuthbert.

Canto II. leads us, very abruptly, (since we are not previously informed of the circumstances now detailed,) from Marmion to the Abbess of Whitby; who, accompanied by Clara and other sisters of the convent, is on her voyage to Lindisfarne: being summoned (as Mr. Scott somewhat hudibrastically observes,)

> 'There with Saint Cuthbert's Abbot old,
> And Tynemouth's prioress, to hold
> A chapter of Saint Benedict,
> For Inquisition stern and strict
> On two Apostates from the *faith*,
> And, if need were, to doom to *death*.' (p. 82.)

One

One of these 'Apostates' proves to be Constance de Beverley; whose sex being discovered, and her elopement from Fontevraud and attempt to poison Clara being detected, she is brought to answer for those crimes before the three judges above mentioned. The gloomy vault in which they are assembled to sentence rather than to try the criminals, the persons and characters of the judges themselves, and the demeanor of their miserable victims, are described with much poetical strength of feeling and imagery. The dreadful penalty pronounced is to be immured alive within a narrow niche in the wall, in a part of the convent unknown to any of the inhabitants except the superiors of the order. This horrible instance of monkish tyranny is not unexampled in the true annals of the church; for Mr. Scott relates, in his notes, that 'among the ruins of the abbey of Coldingham, were, some years ago, discovered the remains of a female skeleton, which, from the shape of the niche and position of the figure, seemed to be that of an immured nun.' Mr. S. has judiciously combined the horrors of the punishment with a very beautiful picture of the offender, so as to heighten the interest which the situation itself must necessarily excite; and the struggle of Constance to speak, before the fatal sentence, is finely painted:

'And now that blind old Abbot rose,
To speak the Chapter's doom,
On those the wall was to inclose,
Alive, within the tomb;
But stopped, because that woeful maid,
Gathering her powers, to speak essayed;
Twice she essayed, and twice, in vain,
Her accents might no utterance gain;
Nought but imperfect murmurs slip
From her convulsed and quivering lip:
'Twixt each attempt all was so still,
You seemed to hear a distant rill—
'Twas ocean's swells and falls;
For though this vault of sin and fear
Was to the sounding surge so near,
A tempest there you scarce could hear,
So massive were the walls.

'At length, an effort sent apart
The blood that curdled to her heart,
And light came to her eye,
And colour dawned upon her cheek,
A hectic and a fluttered streak,
Like that left on the Cheviot peak,
By Autumn's stormy sky;
And when her silence broke at length,
Still as she spoke, she gathered strength,

And arm'd herself to bear.
It was a fearful sight to see
Such high resolve and constancy,
In form so soft and fair.'

Here our interest is most unexpectedly crushed all at once by a long, unnatural, and dull recital of events which, though necessary to be known to the reader, Mr. Scott should have taken any other time to communicate rather than have put it into the mouth of Constance at so critical a moment. It concludes with a prophecy of the Reformation, which ought to have been much more animated, and is followed by a picture of no common merit:

'Fixed was her look, and stern her air;
Back from her shoulders streamed her hair;
The locks, that wont her brow to shade,
Stared up erectly from her head;
Her figure seemed to rise more high;
Her voice, despair's wild energy
Had given a tone of prophecy.
Appalled the astonished conclave sate;
With stupid eyes, the men of fate
Gazed on the light inspired form,
And listened for the avenging storm;
The judges felt the victim's dread,
No hand was moved, no word was said,
Till thus the Abbot's doom was given,
Raising his sightless balls to heaven:—
"Sister, let thy sorrows cease;
Sinful Brother, part in peace!"

This fine passage is coupled with lines of almost infantine imbecility; some of which we deem it our duty to produce, since they will serve as one instance, among a thousand, of the miserable manner in which we are baulked in every page of the volume before us. Mr. Scott is a true Mezentius. His most animated descriptions are constantly tied to some lifeless lump of insensibility.

'From that dire dungeon, place of doom,
Of execution too, and tomb,
Paced forth the judges three;
Sorrow it were, and shame, to tell
The butcher-work that there befell,
When they had glided from the cell
Of sin and misery.'

The coarse expression 'butcher-work,' is as unappropriate as it is disgusting. However horrible was the cruelty of immuring a nun and starving her to death, still it was not *butchery*.

The fearful "*Vade in pacem,*" of monkish tyranny was devised on purpose to screen the ministers of peace from the imputation of shedding blood, and of thus *butchering* their fellow-creatures.

Meanwhile, Marmion and his train, journeying onward, rest themselves for the night at a 'Hostel' in the hamlet of Giffard; and here, as wherever else an inviting opportunity occurs, the author has placed his descriptive powers in a very favourable light. Bating some weak and shuffling lines, the subsequent passage is a fair specimen of his peculiar merits:

'Down from their seats the horsemen sprung, [*sprang*]
With jingling spurs the court-yard rung; [*rang*]
They bend their horses to the stall,
For forage, food, and firing call,
And various clamour fills the hall;
Weighing the labour with the cost,
Toils everywhere the bustling host.

'Soon by the chimney's merry blaze,
Through the rude hostel might you gaze;
Might see, where, in dark nook aloof,
The rafters of the sooty roof
Bore wealth of winter cheer;
Of sea-fowl dried, and solands store,
And gammons of the tusky boar,
And savoury haunch of deer.
The chimney arch projected wide;
Above, around it, and beside,
Were tools for housewives' hand:
Nor wanted, in that martial day,
The implements of Scottish fray,
The buckler, lance, and brand.
Beneath its shade, the place of state,
On oaken settle Marmion sate,
And viewed around the blazing hearth.
His followers mix in noisy mirth,
Whom with brown ale, in jolly tide,
From ancient vessels ranged aside,
Full actively their host supplied.
Their's was the glee of martial breast,
And laughter their's at little jest;
And oft Lord Marmion deigned to aid,
And mingle in the mirth they made:
For though, with men of high degree,
The proudest of the proud was he,
Yet, trained in camps, he knew the art
To win the soldier's hardy heart.
They love a captain to obey,
Boisterous as March, yet fresh as May;

With open hand, and brow as free,
Lover of wine, and minstrelsy;
Ever the first to scale a tower,
As venturous in a lady's bower;
Such buxom chief shall lead his host
From India's fires to Zembla's frost.'

Fitz-Eustace, Marmion's favourite squire, is made to entertain the company with a song, which is but a stiff and rather childish imitation of the truly pathetic simplicity of Burns: but the short character of the wild Scottish music, which introduces it, is full of truth and feeling:

'A deep and mellow voice he had,
The air he chose was wild and sad;
Such have I heard, in Scottish land,
Rise from the busy harvest band,
When falls before the mountaineer,
On lowland plains, the ripened ear.
Now one shrill voice the notes prolong,
Now a wild chorus swells the song:
Oft have I listened, and stood still,
As it came softened up the hill,
And deemed it the lament of men
Who languished for their native glen;
And thought, how sad would be such sound,
On Susquehana's swampy ground,
Kentucky's wood-encumbered brake,
Or wild Ontario's boundless lake,
Where heart-sick exiles, in the strain,
Recalled fair Scotland's hills again!'

To requite the song, "mine host" now tells his tale of a superstition prevalent in the neighbourhood; which takes strong hold of Marmion's imagination, before disturbed by the mysterious air of the Palmer, and by recollections (which the song of Fitz-Eustace had revived) of the unhappy Constance. Unable to sleep, he mounts his horse in the dead of night, with the purpose of encountering the Dæmon warrior; from whom, if subdued by his arm, he has been informed that he may obtain an insight into futurity. He meets the expected foe: but, overthrown by the Dæmon's superior force, he is, for the first time in his life, humbled and vanquished. In this situation, he beholds in the imagined sprite the countenance of De Wilton; for, in fact, it was the Palmer himself who, guessing the intention of Marmion, had gone before him to the fatal ground and awaited his arrival. No event of any consequence, however, results from the conflict. De Wilton (in compliance with a vow) spares his antagonist; and Marmion, notwithstanding the discovery of his rival's features,

continues

continues to believe that he has fought with a supernatural being, and returns overwhelmed with terror, shame, and remorse, to the hostel.—This adventure cannot be too strongly condemned. It is evidently a juggle from the beginning, is introduced for no purpose, and tends to no end.

Canto IV. brings Marmion and his company onwards in their journey; and they meet, on the road,

> 'Sir David Lindsay of the Mount,
> Lord Lyon King at Arms.'

We imagined that the introduction of this celebrated personage, so dear to every lover of Scottish poetry, would have awakened Mr. Scott to something like enthusiasm: but, after having told us that

> 'In the glances of his eye
> *A penetrating, keen, and sly*
> *Expression* found its home,'

he leaves it entirely to the reader's imagination to fill up the picture and elicits from this 'penetrating, keen, and sly expression' not one flash of brilliancy, not one poetic or satirical remark, worthy of his name and character. Sir David accompanies Marmion, nevertheless, with all the courtesy which is suitable to his station, and entertains him nobly during two days at Chrichtoun Castle; where he tells him, in exceedingly dull and prosaic language, a story which Mr. Scott has chosen to preface with the title of "Sir David Lindsay's Tale," but which is really a recital of an event said to have taken place at the Scottish court, and recorded by Pitscottie as a fact, of a messenger sent from Heaven to Linlithgow to warn king James of his approaching destiny. Like the story of "mine host," this episode answers no sort of purpose;—for, though the catastrophe of the poem is the battle of Flodden, yet we are not previously interested for any one of the personages against whom the warning of the celestial messenger can be supposed to involve a denunciation.

The distant view of the camp from Blackford hill, and the more particular description of the various clans and nations of warriors who compose it, relieve us from the weary flat over which the canto mostly creeps, and remind us of better things. The effect produced on Marmion by the warlike prospect is very spirited:

> 'Lord Marmion viewed the landscape bright,—
> He viewed it with a chief's delight,—
> Until within him burned his heart,
> And lightning from his eye did part,
> As on the battle day;

Such

Such glance did falcon never dart,
When stooping on his prey.
" Oh ! well, Lord-Lion, hast thou said,
Thy King from warfare to dissuade
Were but a vain essay ;
For, by Saint George, were that host mine,
Not power infernal, nor divine,
Should once to peace my soul incline,
Till I had dimmed their armour's shine,
In glorious battle fray !"—

Canto V. is intitled ' The Court,' and contains the account of Marmion's arrival at Edinburgh, his introduction to James, and the ill success of his embassy. We have here much picturesque description, but interspersed also with much mean and grovelling narrative ; and some lively touches are bestowed on the persons and characters of James and his mistress, the lady Heron. Unless this lady, however, had a very good voice, we cannot imagine even the infatuated monarch to have been sincere in his praises on her song.

It must be observed that, during the third and fourth cantos, and till near the conclusion of the fifth, no sort of progress is made towards the catastrophe of the tale; and no object is effected except those of swelling the poem and giving Mr. S. opportunities for description, of which he often makes a very idle use. We now approach something more interesting. King James, having returned his answer to the Ambassador, commits him in charge to Archibald Bell-the-Cat, the venerable Earl of Angus, to be entertained at his castle of Tantallon, until the arrival of a Scottish courier from the English court. It happens, by an unfortunate concurrence of circumstances, that the Abbess and Clara, returning from Lindisfarne, were taken by a Scottish Rover and brought to Edinburgh ; and king James thinks that the return of Lord Marmion is a favourable opportunity for getting rid of this unnecessary burthen. The holy ladies, though exceedingly alarmed, dare not object to the proposal ; and thus they all set off for Tantallon together.

On the night previous to their journey, the Abbess finds an opportunity of conferring with the Palmer in private, and reveals to him the tale of Marmion's treason, the *butchering* of Constance, and all the particulars which she had learned from the confession of that unfortunate female. While they are still discoursing, a portentous vision appears on the cross of Edinburgh ; and in the air is heard a solemn citation to the monarch and nobles of Scotland, whose several names are uttered, as from a roll. The name of Lord Marmion follows, and then that of De Wilton : but a second voice revokes the latter

latter sentence, and then the whole vision disappears. This is another historical apparition: but, like that which was related by Sir David Lindsay, Mr. Scott seems to have used it by no means to advantage.

In the mean time, Marmion, having plotted how to avail himself of the gift of fortune in putting Clara into his power, produces a feigned order from her relations; by virtue of which, when the Abbess takes her leave to return to Whitby, he insists on Clara being separated from her and remaining under his protection. In vain the Abbess predicts the curses of Heaven, in vain Clara implores, and in vain Angus himself remonstrates against the cruelty of Marmion: the order appears to be imperative; Clara resigns herself to the severe decree, and, having taken leave of her beloved companion, follows Marmion to Tantallon castle.

The war begins, and Lord Marmion grows tired of his confinement, when he hears that the two armies are on the point of engaging, and fears that he shall be detained beyond the day of battle; Clara leads a very 'dull but dignified' life in the castle, where the protection of Angus saves her from being molested by her persecutor; and De Wilton watches an opportunity of revealing to his noble host the history of his life: The generous soul of Douglas is enflamed with equal indignation against Lord Marmion and compassion for his unfortunate rival, whom he solemnly restores to the order of knighthood; and De Wilton, having re-assumed his arms, meets Clara, and discovers himself to her: but never was any thing so tame and cold as the embrace of the lovers. He acquaints her with his design of repairing to the English camp, where he hopes to wipe off every stain of reproach by his gallant actions; and she, after having expressed some decent unwillingness to trust him so soon again out of her sight, very properly submits her wishes to the consideration of his honour.

Marmion now obtains his passport; and at parting from Tantallon castle, when he complains of the cold civility with which he has been treated, the good old Earl answers by refusing him his hand. An indignant reply from Marmion rouses Douglas's ire; and he orders the drawbridge to be raised, and the portcullis to be lowered, in order to detain and punish the English Knight:

> 'Lord Marmion turned,—well was his need,
> And dashed the rowels in his steed,
> Like arrow through the arch way sprung, *(sprang)*
> The ponderous grate behind him rung: *(rang)*
> To pass there was such scanty room,
> The bars, descending, razed his plume.

'The

'The steed along the drawbridge flies,
Just as it trembled on the rise;
Not lighter does the swallow skim
Along the smooth lake's level brim.
And when Lord Marmion reached his band,
He halts, and turns with clenched hand,
And shout of loud defiance pours,
And shook his gauntlet at the towers.'

The hero journeying onwards, with Clara in his suite, misses his mysterious Palmer, and learns from his attendants the strange and appalling news of De Wilton's return, of his having re-assumed the honour of knighthood, and of his journey to the camp. They rest for the night at Lennel Abbey, on the Tweed; and, early on the next morning, they discover the two armies drawn up in battle-array on the fatal field of Flodden, 4th Sept. 1513.

From this period to the conclusion of the poem, Mr. Scott's genius, so long overclouded, bursts forth in full lustre, and even transcends itself. It is impossible to do him justice by making extracts when all is equally attractive, and still less by detailing in weak prose the circumstances of his catastrophe. The reader will easily anticipate that Marmion falls in the battle, and that De Wilton marries Clara: but, after having confessed our inability to select any passage that will not suffer most materially by being separated from those which surround it, we must yet so far indulge ourselves as to copy a single stanza, which serves to wind up the poem.

Lord Marmion, having performed the most transcendent acts of valour, is borne wounded to the hill on which Clara had been left during the engagement, where his eyes are closed by her whom he persecuted during life. A corpse is afterward conveyed, as that of Marmion, to the cathedral of Litchfield, where a magnificent tomb is erected to his memory, and masses are instituted for the repose of his soul: but, by an admirably imagined act of poetical justice, we are informed that a peasant's body was placed beneath that costly monument, while the haughty Baron himself was buried like a vulgar corpse, on the spot on which he died:

'Less easy task it were, to shew,
Lord Marmion's nameless grave, and low:
They dug his grave e'en where he lay,
But every mark is gone;
Time's wasting hand has done away
The simple Cross of Sybil Grey,
And broke her font of stone:
But yet from out the little hill
Oozes the slender springlet still.

Oft

Oft halts the stranger there,
For thence may best his curious eye
The memorable field descry;
And shepherd boys repair
To seek the water-flag and rush,
And rest them by the hazel bush,
And plait their garlands fair;
Nor dream they sit upon the grave,
That holds the bones of Marmion brave.—
When thou shalt find the little hill,
With thy heart commune, and be still.
If ever, in temptation strong,
Thou left'st the right path for the wrong;
If every devious step, thus trode,
Still led thee farther from the road;
Dread thou to speak presumptuous doom,
On noble Marmion's lowly tomb;
But say, "He died a gallant knight,
With sword in hand, for England's right."

The passages which we have selected in the course of this article, though in general highly favourable to Mr. Scott, discover a number of the faults which we have regretted: but we must not conclude without pointing out more specifically some of the instances in which he has most glaringly abused the license which he claims.

In a poem so loosely composed, with such extreme latitude of rhythm and construction, it is really unpardonable to allow a single defective rhyme. Yet we could almost venture to assert that one in ten of the rhymes which this poem contains are bad. What can Mr. Scott (or at least what can any *Englishman*) say in defence of *crest, revers'd; deas, place*; not, wrote; clad, red; toil, while; heard, guard; done, John; faith, death; pieree, hearse; strong, rung; requite, weight; close, fosse; beneath, death; made, dead; down, own; once, glance; strange, revenge;* all which we have merely picked up at random from among a multitude of others?

Considering the distinguished rank which this author holds in the republic of literature, it is mortifying to notice his disregard of the plainest rules of grammar: but how can we omit to mention such gross inaccuracies as the substitution of *tore* for *torn; wore* for *worn; wrote* for *written;* 'where wine and spices richly *steep*,' for 'where rich spices are steeped in wine;' *rebuilded* for *rebuilt; chose* for *chosen;* 'for Clara and

* 'He led Lord Marmion to the *deas*,
Raised o'er the pavement *high*,
And *placed* him in the upper *place*—
They feasted full and *high*.' (P. 34, 35.)

for *me*,' instead of '*myself*;' 'Ev'n such weak minister as *me*, May the oppressor quell,' &c. &c. &c. &c.

Mr. Scott's want of grammar is yet less glaring than his want of ear. To insert every proof of this latter defect would be to quote nearly half the poem; since, even in his most vigorous passages, many discordant or low words are admitted without scruple, and without distinction: but it does not require a poetical ear to detect such harsh constructions as the following:

——— ——— 'When at need,
Him listed ease his battle steed,'—
'Stout Saint George of Norwich merry,'—
'By Archibald won in bloody work.'—
'If this same Palmer will me lead,'—
'The tide did now its floodmark gain,'—
'The heads of convents three,'—
'For Sanctity called through the Isle
The Saint of Lindisfarne.'
''*Twixt* each attempt all was so still,
You seemed to hear a distant rill,
'*Twas* Ocean's *swells* and *falls*,'—
'*Remorse*'s venom'd throes,'—
'Eustace *did* blithely mark,'—
'Cock *he* crew,'—
'Glances *but* and dies,'—
'*Never* super-human cause
Could *e'er* controul their course,' &c. &c. &c.

——— ——— ——— 'its *Stile*
Varies *from Continent* to Isle.'—
'I saw the face of one who, *fled*
To foreign Climes, has long been dead,—
I well believe the *last*;
For ne'er, from visor rais'd, did stare
A human warrior, *with a glare*
So grimly and so ghast!!!'

In the last two instances, it appears that the author, repenting of his sins against *Rhyme*, determines to sacrifice *Reason* in order to make some atonement: but let it not be supposed that he is so narrow-minded as to have offered up only *two* victims to expiate the transgression.

'Cuthbert's Cloisters *grim*,'—'*griesly* Door,'—'*grim* entrance to the porch;'—in these instances, Mr. S. has wantonly *murdered* (or *butchered*) Reason, not *sacrificed* her. What idea can he possibly form to himself of a '*Cloister grim?*'

Mr. Scott must pardon us for censuring him so freely, since it is very much against our inclination that we censure him at all. We opened his book with very different ideas and expectations; and we shall still hope for an opportunity of bestowing on his eminent genius the tribute of unmixed applause.

We

We do not flatter ourselves that he will pay to our advice that attention which he has refused to his acute friend, Mr. Erskine: but it is possible that his own good sense may in time persuade him not to abandon his loved Fairy ground, (a province over which we wish him a long and prosperous government,) but to combine the charms of *lawful poetry* with those of wild and romantic fiction. As the first step to this desirable end, we would beg him to reflect that his Gothic models will not bear him out in transferring the loose and shuffling ballad metre to a poem of considerable length, and of complicated interest, like the present. It is a very *easy* thing to write five hundred *ballad verses, stans pede in uno:* but Mr. Scott needs not to be told that five hundred verses written on one foot have a very poor chance for immortality.

Meri...e.
1st Art.

Art. II. *Travels in Scotland, by an unusual Route:* with a Trip to the Orkneys and Hebrides. Containing Hints for Improvements in Agriculture and Commerce. With Characters and Anecdotes. Embellished with Views of striking Objects, and a Map, including the Caledonian Canal. By the Rev. James Hall, A. M. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 330 in each. 1l. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1807.

The narrow country of Scotland has been so often described, and its passable communications are so limited in extent and number, that the intimation of an *unusual route* induced us to peruse these volumes with some degree of eagerness. Mr. Hall's principal stages, however, are doubtless sufficiently familiar to every person who has any acquaintance with the topography of North Britain. Taking his departure from Edinburgh, he proceeded to Stirling, and thence journeyed to Dumferline, St. Andrew's, Falkland, Kinross, Abernethy, Perth, Dundee, Aberbrothic, Montrose, Aberdeen, Peterhead, Banff, Forres, Inverness, Forts George and Augustus, Thurso, Fort William, Dunbarton, and Glasgow. The descriptive portions of his journal are generally meagre and defective: but some of them serve as apologies for very handsome engravings. Many of his notices, too, betray a want of accuracy and precision, which we could hardly have expected from a learned native of the country which he undertakes to delineate. Thus, he has confounded the names of two of the justly celebrated falls of the Clyde, and passed the third in silence. Of Dunblane, he mentions a paltry village and some graves, but never once hints at the ruins of the cathedral, the Leightonian library, nor the enormous maple-tree which flourishes in the neighbourhood. Indeed, an able barrister would find it no hard task to prove an *alibi*

against our Rev. Tourist, more than once in the course of his northern excursion. Had he really visited Dunblane, the first and second of the objects which we have mentioned must have stared him in the face; and if he really procured access to the iron founderies at Carron, he has been honoured with no ordinary mark of distinction, and one which rank and fortune have often solicited in vain. At all events, the contemplation of such a *glowing* and *striking* scene should have prompted remarks less vague and trivial, and have inspired a far more dignified subject of embellishment than that of a brawny son of Vulcan ducking an unprincipled taylor.

Again, if we accompany Mr. Hall to the best cultivated grounds in the Highlands of Scotland,—as, for example, to the fertile fields of Baddenoch,—we are told of rhubarb, and *some other plants*, growing nine inches in the space of twenty-four hours, a rapidity of vegetation which is visible to the eye. What these *other* plants may be, we shall not even venture to conjecture: but we may confidently affirm that they are not the common herbage of the country, of which the rate of developement is, alas! far more sober. 'In severe winters, (says this traveller) it is not an uncommon thing for the horses in the hills, *for* hunger, to eat one another's tails and manes; nay, one another's ears: but the tails and manes are oftener eaten, as this is done without any pain or resistance. They will fight a tough battle for their ears.'—The swindler may not disdain to take a lesson from these starving quadrupeds of the north. 'In Glasgow, too, the other year, a boy that had been twice or thrice in prison for stealing, coming into a mercer's shop, picked something from the counter, and was going away. The master of the shop seeing this, and recollecting him, immediately took up a pair of scissars from the counter, cropped his ears, and desired him to put these in his pocket.' Other strange matters are recorded of certain classes of the inhabitants of Glasgow, which we are astonished that any clergyman could commit to writing.

In return for so much novel information, we must beg leave to remind Mr. Hall that Argyle-house, at Inverary, is not constructed of bluish *granite*, but of a species of *lapis ollaris*, or *pot-stone*; that *fucus palmatus* is the botanical designation of *dulse* (not *dilse*;) that the Black-*cock* and *Cock of the wood* are distinct species; and that the *Ptarmigan* is not a *Pheasant*. The circumstances relative to the choice of a pastor at P—k, we have reason to believe, are incorrectly stated; and we doubt whether a Kinghorn-boat has founded on the passage to Leith, in the memory of any person now living. If an author will persist in idle and desultory gossipping, he must also bear to be told that his anecdotes are related

related of other individuals than those to whom he assigns them; and that, when they have no pointed reference to the illustration of national character, they may too often be regarded as useless lumber, in a book of travels. Of the domestic details communicated by the present Tourist, by far the greater number might have been culled in almost any corner of the civilized world; while delicacy to individual feeling ought, in several instances, to have restrained the pen. At the same time, it behoves us to remark that the multiplied shreds of patch-work, with which we are here presented, are not always sewed together in a careless or peevish mood. Much merited praise is bestowed on the late Dr. Chalmers; some useful hints relative to agricultural improvement are suggested; a sensible and disspassionate view of the state of society in the Shetland and Orkney Islands is exhibited; and the inhumanity, which characterizes some of the popular diversions at St. Andrew's, is justly reprobated. From among various other passages, which manifest the author's disrelish of that sour spirit of fanaticism that still lingers in the north, we shall present our readers with that which first occurs:

'So powerful is the contagious zeal of the missionaries, that it has made its way even into the central or inland Highlands, where little more of religion was known or cared for, than a mixture of Druidical with Christian rites or ceremonies. About 50 years ago, the Glassites, otherwise called Sandimanians, sent missionaries from Perth into Athol and Bredalbane, to propagate their doctrines; but they were only laughed at by the Highlanders, and told that they minded none of those things, which they considered as the business only of the minister. Not so Mr. Haldane's missionaries. The minister of a certain parish in the Presbytery of Dunkeld, and all his family, have been seized with the enthusiasm of the missionaries almost to phrenzy. Not only the minister, but his wife and daughter go about the country teizing their neighbours, particularly clergymen and their families, about the state of their souls. Miss S——t, animated by the zeal of making converts, paid a visit to a neighbouring clergyman distinguished by learning, genius, and every virtue. This was the Rev. Dr. Thomas Bisset, late minister of Logie Rait. The lady had no sooner entered the manse, and been seated in the parlour, than she told the minister that she had come, "expressly to see if he was in the way to heaven." The doctor replied, that he had kept his soul in his own charge for 69 years and a quarter, and that for the short time he might live longer, he did not intend to put it into trust. The circumstance that occasioned this anxiety about the doctor's salvation on the part of Miss S——t, was, the practical tenor of his discourses from the pulpit: of both the nature and the effects of which, very different from those of fanatical, or as it is commonly called methodistical preaching, the following anecdote

of which I am well assured, by an eye witness, is an instance. The minister had been preaching to his congregation against not only stealing, but all manner of fraud, circumvention, and roguery. A little after he had returned to the manse, a servant came and told him that Rob Roy was at the door, and wanted to speak to him. This was a noted drover, or dealer in cattle. Robert, being called into the parlour, immediately explained the purpose of his visit to the minister, before his son and some other persons who were present, Oh! sir, said he, you made that preachment against me. You have heard of my cheating that poor woman Widow Robertson, in buying her only cow. I took advantage of her not knowing the price, and of her being in want of money; and I got it at little more than half value, as you clearly shewed this day. What shall I do to make her amends?—Give her back the cow, said the worthy pastor, and allow her time to pay you back the money you gave her.—Would that, reverend sir, make up for my cheatry, and save me from all the punishment on this account that you was preaching about?—I dare say it might.—Then, sir, to make sure work, I will give back the cow without the price, and keep from such tricks hereafter.

'This resolution he acually performed. But a sermon which impelled a rogue to abandon the fruits of his fraud would have been abhorred by Miss S——t as legal, and not evangelical preaching. The worst, and certainly great evil in the doctrines of the fanatics, is, that they tend to separate religion from morality, and to make it consist wholly in certain mysterious emotions and metaphysical notions, which they call acts of faith. The Christian religion is indeed founded on FAITH: not a faith of metaphysical abstractions; but a faith bearing the fruit of good works—of piety towards God, and good will and love towards men.

'Zeal in a good cause is calculated to do much good; but zeal without knowledge, though God may accept of it, has done in former times, and is still calculated to do, much mischief. The zeal of John Knox, in the days of Mary Queen of Scots, was warm and well meant, but it being directed, not against the clergy only, but against the walls of the churches, which certainly were not culpable, shews that it was partly without knowledge. Indeed he at length found that his great zeal had carried him too far, and that many of the barons and other landholders had joined in the reformation, not from religious motives, as he had imagined, but for the sake of the church lands, which they saw would fall to them, if the reformation should be brought about.

'It is true, some of the strolling preachers have strong natural parts, and cannot be styled immoral men; but then their enthusiasm certainly carries them too far, when, like the famous Ralph Erskine, they assert that God made the world only to shew what he could do; that it is nothing but a scaffold for erecting the edifice of grace; and that the scaffold will be knocked down and burnt up when the edifice is complete. There is no impropriety in preachers telling their people, in the language of Job, that conscience is the candle of the Lord within us: but what shall we say of their arguing as they do, and express it, that this candle must be often snuffed?

'A petty

'A petty practitioner of the law in Stirling, whether tinctured with the doctrines of the Haldanites, or with any religious doctrines at all, I am uncertain, being proprietor of an estate in a neighbouring parish, sent his proportion of the stipend to the clergyman by the hands of the hangman. When the hangman, who, here, as well as in most other places, is neither a respectable nor a popular character, and who is seldom seen without the walls of the town where he resides, was approaching the minister's house, the servants, and all in the house, were much alarmed, except the clergyman; and when the hangman knocked at the door, it was like the sentence of death. As every body had run with fear and trembling to hide themselves, no one could be found to let him in. However, he was at last admitted. Upon being desired by the clergyman, (Mr. *Frame*,) of Alloa, to come in, he informed him he had been sent by Mr. J. C—l with his proportion of the stipend. Finding the money good and the sum due, being asked a receipt, Mr. Frame wrote, "Received from Mr. C—, through the hands of his agent and factor, the hangman of Stirling, the sum of thirty pounds sterling, &c." But it seems, that the year after, the gentleman judged it unnecessary to remit his money by his former agent.'

For the accuracy of *all* the anecdotes with which these pages are liberally interspersed, we cannot presume to vouch: but some of them are, indeed, abundantly ludicrous. Let the following suffice as examples:

'It was, and still is a custom in many places in the Highlands, that whoever comes into a house after a person dies, and before such person is interred, as also after a child is born till it is baptized, must eat and drink in the house before they leave it. This being the custom, to save expences, and because they think it disrespectful to God to have an unbaptized child in the house, poor people generally have their children as soon baptized as possible. But it happened once to a poor man in this part of the country, that a river, as is often the case, ran between his house and the clergyman's, so that neither the poor man could get to the clergyman, nor the clergyman to the poor man's, in order to have the child baptized. The river was swoln by the gradual melting of the snow, and there was no bridge within twenty miles. The poor man's cheese, his bread, &c. was nearly expended; he, therefore, on the one side of the river, and the clergyman on the other, consulting what was to be done, agreed that the child should be brought to the river side; that the father, presenting the child, should take on the vows, as they term it, and the minister with a scoop, or Dutch ladle, should throw over the water: which was done, though with difficulty, owing to the breadth of the river; after which, the clergyman pronounced the name, prayed aloud, so as to be heard by the parent and his attendants on the other side, after which each went to their respective places perfectly satisfied with this new mode of baptism, and that, if the child died in infancy, it would go to heaven.'—

'Being invited to dine with a gentleman near Auldern, when I was praising the sallad, which I found extremely good, he said, smiling,

smiling, "You need not be afraid, it is not dressed with castor oil." Upon inquring what he alluded to, he told me that a gentleman and his lady, in the neighbourhood, who sometimes, as is the case in inland places, where there are no resident doctors, when any of their tenants are sick, recommend an emetic, or the like, to them, and at their own expence afforded the medicine. This gentleman, having an appeal to the house of peers, about a large estate, was at London; and, as he gained the process, and was about to return to Scotland, he bought some gallons of castor oil, to lie at his house, and be served out as occasion should require. Upon his arrival in Scotland, as it is natural, all the nobility and gentry, who were acquainted with him, came to dine with him, and congratulate him and the family on so many thousand pounds yearly being added to their fortune. When mostly all the genteel families for twenty miles round had paid their compliments to him in this manner, and he and his lady found leisure to hear the complaints of those sick people that applied to them, he found that some castor oil might be useful to a person that had come to consult them. Upon this, he rang the bell for John, the servant, who appearing, and being desired to bring some castor oil, replied, it is all done. Done! replied the gentleman, do not you know there is a keg of it lately come from London? "Yes, but if it please your honour, that one is done too" How can that be, replied the gentleman, in a passion? "Why, sir, you have had such a round of company almost every day since it came, and always sallad at table, that it is all gone." "Don't you know, it is castor oil I want, and that the name is written in large letters on the cask?" "So it is," replied the servant, "but as your honour knows, it was for the CASTORS, and dressing the sallad: it is all gone."—"O you scoundrell, now I understand you; so you have been dressing the sallad all this time with it. But harkee, John, for God's sake do not mention it." The truth is, all the company were highly pleased with the sallads, and had often spoke in their praise; and the gentleman and his family had never in their life a better summer's health, nor the people that visited him.'—

'It is strange that the magistrates of Edinburgh, who are, in general, men of parts and discernment, should appoint any one to the office of town crier that neither can read Scotch nor English. I heard one of them, when reading an advertisement, blunder almost at every word, and pronounce the very first word advertisement, laying the accent on the third syllable, when it should have been on the second, and confounding the word shops, where goods are sold, with the word chops, meaning the mouth and jaws. Indeed, at Aberdeen, till lately, they generally pronounced both these words the same way. Upon the eve of a king's fast day there, about a year ago, one of the town-criers proclaimed, that, as to-morrow was a fast day, by order of the magistrates, no one within the liberties of the city, under pain of fining and imprisonment, should open their shops, but he pronounced it chops, from morning till night. An Englishman, who happened to be there, imagining that the magistrates had ordered that none should open their mouth to eat all that time, left the city, swearing, for his part, he would not obey them;

them; and that, as the Magistrates were fools for issuing such an order, so he thought the people would be fools if they obeyed it.'

It would greatly exceed our limits to specify the instances of loose and careless writing which occur in these volumes. In the last short quotation, we have two examples of improper collocation of the clauses of a sentence; the first—*by order of the Magistrates*—might imply that the fast was of their appointment; and the second—*from morning till night*—that the poor crier exercised his *calling* throughout the live-long day.

The remoteness of our residence from the scene of alleged delinquencies precludes us from a candid appreciation of the author's unsparing censure of certain members of a northern university. As, however, he professes to have been bred at that seminary, and mentions names with little or no reserve, we trust that either the accused party will repel his charges, to the satisfaction of the public; or that a Royal Visitation, or the interference of the Legislature, will forthwith apply some effectual check to abuses so enormous, and so subversive of the best interests of learning and morality.

Muir.

ART. III. *An Account of Prince Edward's Island,* in the Gulph of St. Lawrence, North America. Containing its Geography, a Description of its different Divisions, Soil, Climate, Seasons, Natural Productions, Cultivation, Discovery, Conquest, Progress, and present State of the Settlement, Government, Constitution, Laws, and Religion. By John Stewart, Esq. 8vo. pp. 320. 8s. Boards. Winchester and Son.

MANY of our readers have heard of the Island of St. John, in the gulph of St. Lawrence; and some of them may recollect that, to prevent it from being confounded with other places of the same name, it was called *Prince Edward's* Island, in compliment to his R. H. the Duke of Kent. Though a spot of comparative insignificance, it has recently acquired some claims to our notice, from the humane and spirited exertions of the Earl of Selkirk, who superintended, in person, the settlement of a Scottish Colony on parts of its unoccupied soil*. In the present volume, Mr. Stewart has obviously availed himself of a long residence on the island: but he details his information with more impartiality than taste, and appears to have enjoyed few opportunities of cultivating the graces of correct and polished composition. The arrangement of his materials, also, is defective in point of

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* See Rev. Vol. L. p. 417.

neatness,

neatness, and his principal statements may be comprized within a narrow compass.

The whole extent of the Island amounts to 1,381,000 acres. It possesses the advantage of many bays and inlets, which form excellent harbours. Charlotte Town, the capital, is regularly laid out on the banks of the river Hillsburgh, and is very conveniently situated for trade. George-Town is yet in embryo, but its harbour is one of the best in North America. The face of the island is generally level, the highest hill not being supposed to exceed 500 feet above the sea: but the ground is not unfrequently waved, and diversified with gentle swells. It has abundance of fine water, but is very deficient in stone fit for the purposes of building. Roads are formed with singular facility, and consequently enhance the physical benefits of navigable creeks and rivers. The soil is generally a light red loam, more or less sandy, though in some places approaching to a strong clay. The principal forest trees are, Beech, several varieties of Birch, Alder, Maple, American Elm, Red Oak, Ash, various species of Pine, Poplar, Swamp Willow, and White Cedar.—We transcribe the author's interesting remarks on the *Acer Saccharinum:*

'This is frequently a large tree: the butts of many of them for six or eight feet from the ground, being finely curled, render this timber extremely beautiful in cabinet work, as it is very close grained, and susceptible of a high polish: what is called the bird's eye maple is a variety of this tree. The chief value of the maple at present, arises from the quantity of sugar annually manufactured of its sap, the making of which generally commences about the 25th of March, and continues through the first ten days in April; the quantity made varies much in different years, and depends greatly on the weather at this period; the more snow there is on the ground, the trees run the greater quantity of sap; dark or rainy weather is unfavourable; the sap is produced in the greatest quantities in bright sun shiny days after a frosty night: to procure the sap a gap is cut in the tree with a common felling axe, this is from an inch and an half to three inches deep, and from six to eight inches long, slanting in the form of the letter V, and should face the south-west; the sap will run freely from this gap, from the lower end of which it is guided into a trough placed below, by a chip driven into a slight cut just under the gap; a full grown tree will sometimes run upwards of two gallons a day; the persons employed in the business visit the trees frequently to see that the sap runs fairly into the troughs, and to collect it into barrels, which are placed conveniently for that purpose, in them it is drawn on hand sledges to the boiling place, or as it is called the sugar camp: the apparatus for boiling generally consists of three kettles, the largest double the size of the second, and that rather more than in the same proportion to the third, these are suspended over a large fire made in a temporary hut in the forest; the

sap

sap is first boiled in the large kettle, and removed into the others in succession, as it is reduced by boiling to the quantity each can contain; when removed into the second kettle, the first is again filled with fresh sap, and boiling is continued in all the kettles which are filled up from each other; the liquor requires to be frequently skimmed; to prevent its rising suddenly over the kettle, a small bit of tallow or butter is occasionally thrown in: when the syrup in the smaller kettle appears of a proper consistency, it is poured into wooden moulds, the kettle is again filled up from the second, which is replenished from the larger, and that is filled with fresh sap; a small quantity of lime water is sometimes put into the smaller kettle to promote its granulation. In every stage of the work much attention is required to make good sugar: before boiling the sap should be strained to clear it of chips and other adventitious substances. The sugar thus produced is by some rendered as white as the finest Muscovado sugar, but that is by no means generally the case, much of it being made in a very slovenly manner, is very dark coloured, extremely hard from too much boiling, difficult to break, and takes a long time to dissolve; the manufacture upon the whole is in a very imperfect state in this island, though it is certainly improving. When well made this sugar is an agreeable sweet, and answers all the purposes of common sugar; very good vinegar is also made by boiling three gallons of sap into one, and then fermenting it with yeast.

'The sugar thus obtained from the maple is all clear gain, being made at a time when very little other out of door work can be performed. Three smart lads working together, will often make one hundred weight each in the course of a fortnight, and sometimes in a favourable year more. The trees are found in more or less plenty all over the island, where the original growth of forest remains; the greatest part of the inhabitants supply themselves with all the sugar they consume in this manner, and many have a good deal to dispose of.

'The maple tree adds much to the beauty of our forest scenery in the autumn, as the leaves of a single tree will assume every tint from green to rich crimson and bright scarlet colour.'

Mr. Stewart's very imperfect list of animals presents little that can interest those who are acquainted with the Zoology of North America. Seals are uncommonly numerous; and no dangerous reptile is found in the Island. The ravages of the *Sorex murinus*, or *Ground-mouse*, appear to have been greatly exaggerated. 'In thirty years,' says Mr. S. '[during which] I have been acquainted with the Island, and upwards of twenty years' actual residence there, I have never known mice do any injury to the crops, two or three years only excepted and then partially, and by no means general through the Island. Yet I am sensible it is often mentioned in Nova Scotia, as what frequently happens, although it might be expected, that the quantity of grain which we send them annually, ought long ago to have induced them to desist from

a representation, so palpably erroneous and unjust.'—The neighbouring sea swarms with a great variety of excellent fish.

In regard to climate, the winter is less severe than in the neighbouring countries of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Canada; and it is unincumbered with the fogs by which the two former are infested. This season of the year, however, is subject to very considerable diversities of temperature, and varieties of duration. Easterly winds, which are always damp and chilly, prevail in the month of May. In June, the face of the country assumes a gay and lively aspect; and the air is perfumed with the blossoms of trees, and of various aromatic shrubs and herbs. In July and August, the weather is very fine, and steadily warm; the thermometer generally standing between 70 and 80, and sometimes rising to 86, with an uniform breeze at S. W., which, blowing off the water, greatly contributes to moderate the heat.

'The Aurora Borealis is observed at all seasons of the year, and is commonly the forerunner of a southerly wind and rain: this luminous appearance is sometimes extremely beautiful, and in our pure atmosphere is seen to great advantage, it generally begins in the north, runs up to the Zenith, and sometimes overspreads the whole concave with streams of light, variegated with blue, red, and yellow of various tints; in a calm night, the sound caused by its flashings, may often be distinctly heard.'

Though colds and rheumatisms are not unfrequent, the Island is on the whole uncommonly healthy; intermittent fevers and other diseases of the United States being entirely unknown, and a very large proportion of the inhabitants living to old age, and then dying by a gradual decay of nature.

Wheat, barley, oats, rye, pease, potatoes, and turnips, are very generally cultivated, and produce good crops; and most of the garden vegetables that are common in England, as also gooseberries, currants, apples, plumbs, and cherries, thrive well. Horses, black cattle, sheep, and swine, are numerous; and domestic poultry of all kinds are raised in great plenty and perfection. The chief impediment to the improvement and prosperity of the settlement consists in the failure of many of the proprietors in their engagements with government, and the selfish motives which actuated the conduct of one of the governors. On these unpleasant particulars, which Mr. Stewart has detailed with great minuteness, we forbear to enlarge.

As to the administration of the Island, which is independent of any jurisdiction in America, it is vested in a Governor, or Lieutenant Governor, and Council, appointed by the King, and

and a house of representatives, elected by the people. The general system of laws concides with that of England, with such exceptions and modifications as are suited to the circumstances of an infant colony. All the taxes, which have been hitherto imposed, are a licence-duty on retailers of wines and spirituous liquors,—an excise-duty of ten-pence per gallon, payable on the importation of all wines and spirits,—and two-pence per gallon on the importation of all porter, ale, or strong beer. The only Common-Law Court is the Supreme Court of judicature, which is at once a Court of Common Pleas, King's Bench, and Exchequer.

The system of the Church of England is the religion of the Island, established by law: but the free exercise of every other is tolerated, and dissenters of all descriptions may elect pastors according to their own opinions, and build meeting-houses for public worship.

We cannot conclude without srongly recommending several of the author's statements to the serious consideration of his Majesty's ministers.

Muir.

ART. IV. *Memorials of Nature and Art*, collected on a Journey in Great Britain during the Years 1802 and 1803, by Christian Augustus Gottlieb Gœde. Translated from the original German by Thomas Horne. 3 Vols. 12mo. 16s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1808.

IT is not improbable that our readers may, like ourselves, be led to expect from the title of this work, that it contains a full description of all the beautiful and curious objects which are presented to the observation of a traveller in England. The natural wonders of Cornwall and Derbyshire,—the lovely scenery of the Lakes,—the various monuments of human ingenuity,—the mighty mystery of Stonehenge,—our castles, cathedrals, colleges, and villas,—all the specimens of our manifold orders of architecture, from the rude British Cromlech to the distinguished Grecian edifices of our own days,—fall as properly under the promise held forth in the title page, as they are inconsistent with the taste and the powers of Mr. Gœde. Although he informs us that his materials were collected in a journey through the country, we scarcely find a single allusion to any object out of London; and not the least notice is taken of any town besides the metropolis, except what might have been easily gathered from a hasty visit paid in a stage coach. The interesting form of a journal is not indeed affected, so that we are deprived of the useful

pleasure of observing the first impression made on the mind of a foreigner; who has here contented himself with writing an essay on English manners, of which he could know but little, instead of conveying a clear idea of what he witnessed, which could scarcely fail of being both instructive and entertaining.

As the value of every man's opinion on such a subject depends essentially on his character and previous habits, we should have been glad to learn Mr. G's situation at home, the motives of his journey, and the sort of company into which he was likely to be thrown: but his name is given in the title-page without any addition; and we find no preface to explain his particular views,—at which we cannot give a nearer guess from internal evidence, than by observing that the strictures on our theatres are more extended than those on any other subject, and are placed, as the most important topics frequently are, at the conclusion of his volumes. He closes them by stating, with a sly irony, that the actresses of London (of whom he entertains but a mean opinion) possess such grace and elegance, that he was absolutely too much dazzled by their perfection minutely to observe them. Mrs. Jordan and Miss Pope are particularly exposed to his satire: but he appears to render ample justice to the heroes of the stage, and admits that *Suett* was extremely well cut out for *sublime comedy!* Yet perhaps it would be going too far to infer from these remarks that our traveller is more than an *amateur* of the dramatic art.

Mr. G. is a great admirer of the English character in the abstract: but, on every occasion on which he descends to particulars, his praise is less liberally bestowed. On our political genius, and the excellence of our constitution, he descants in the general language of enthusiastic applause, and both our late great statesmen are panegyrized *con amore:* but, on a nearer inspection, he discovers much of disgrace and danger in the state of our parties; condemns the continental politics of Mr. Pitt as a matchless memorial of human folly; and alleges that the *new Whigs*, of whom he considers Mr. Fox to be the leader, entertain the most pernicious designs against the tranquillity of their country. In the House of Commons, he was surprised at the want of eloquence among the speakers: but then he withdrew from the debate before either of our distinguished leaders delivered his sentiments. Again, he pays high compliments to the pure and *expeditious* administration of the law by our Courts of Justice: but he points out many things which strike him as remarkably defective, and appears shocked at the licence assumed by counsel in cross examination. His remarks on these and

other

other subjects connected with the law are not destitute of good sense; though we must say of them, as of various other parts of his work, that they are precisely such as have occured to most reflecting Englishmen, and have little of the originality that might be expected from a stranger.

In truth, it appears to us that this gentleman has neither seen nor thought a great deal for himself; though we must allow him the merit of having entered into many minutiæ of our domestic history with considerable accuracy. It is extremely difficult for a foreigner to comprehend the diversified traits of English character; and we have not forgotten the philosophic Frenchman, who accounted for the thickness of the ballustrades on Westminster bridge, from the anxiety of Government to prevent suicide by concealing the river, which, it seems, would have afforded an irresistible temptation to that truly English propensity. The same observer described the effect of fine weather on our feelings, and our mode of enjoying it, in the following sentence: "*En Angleterre, quand le soleil luit, ce qui y arrive tres-rarement, d'abord tout le monde prend la plume en main, et écrit,* gloriose day!"—The correctness of Mr. Gœde's English friends, and the readiness with which he has taken their hints, prevent him from falling into many such mistakes: but we trust that those of our fair readers, who are implicated in the following passage, will unanimously authorise us to assert that it must have arisen from the *hoax* of some antiquated bachelor:

'Great inequality is observable in the fashionable air of that class of citizens, which occupies an intermediate station; between the affluent and the indigent; but along with it, an uniform endeavour to imitate the manners of the higher ranks, which I have noticed in a foregoing chapter. Among these, the ruinous consequences of the defective education of English females are more particularly obvious. The manners of the men are far more natural than those of the ladies, who are precipitated into many extravagant follies, from affecting to rival the fashionable females of more elevated life. It will scarcely appear credible, that the abominable custom of painting the face is peculiar to this class. No sooner do their misses return from a boarding-school, than they begin to make familiar use of washes; nay, even the ancient dames study to improve their beauty by an artificial red and white, stain their eye-brows, &c. This paint is sold by the English perfumers in small boxes, marked with numbers according to its different hues. It is therefore not unusual to hear this class of ladies accost one another in the following manner: "You look charmingly to-day, my dear; pray what number do you use?" To such an intolerable length does this absurd and odious fashion proceed, that they even manifest their displeasure at those who will not follow it, and assert their pretensions to the artificial graces of a highly-coloured complexion; frequently exclaiming: "What a horrid figure

that

that woman makes! It is just for all the world as if she had not a single shilling to buy paint with!"

In one instance, we meet with so singular a misapprehension of a character pretty generally known to the public, that we cannot withhold it:

'Mr. Erskine enjoys, as an orator, a reputation far greater than he really deserves. His party, by whom he is caressed, have been the instruments of his elevation. His exterior is noble and expressive: his voice strong and melodious. These natural advantages, added to a commendable industry and a lofty ambition, would alone suffice to raise even ordinary talents above mediocrity. But this is the highest species of merit, that we can reasonably ascribe to Erskine. Without striking partiality, we cannot acquit him of the character of pedantry, chained down by the fetters of scholastic oratory, which oppresses his ideas under a farrago of pompous phrases; of affectation, displayed in absurd and unreasonable pathos; and of a stately and disgusting coldness of manner, arising from the defect of a diligent culture of the powers of imagination. He appears to stand on the same level with Lord Belgrave, to whom he was opposed during the present debate.'

Such mistakes, however, are certainly not so common as those readers, who look principally for amusement, may possibly desire; and we will only add the writer's strange description of some of our learned and literary characters:—he does not mention in what part of the Island he encountered them:

'From the solitary lives of English scholars, we may explain the leading features of their learned transactions and critical controversies, which form a striking contrast with the fashionable style formerly prevalent in the flourishing æra of their literature: with the exception of what regards theology and politics, their manner is cold, reserved, and ceremonious.

'They preserve, inviolably, the boundaries of decorum: they approach each other with measured steps; they affect a dignified gravity, nay, even their smile of approbation is accurately studied and made up. But nothing is more whimsical, than the usual kind of compliment adopted by their more ordinary authors. It reminds a German of that æra of gallantry and chivalry, when Gottsched and his lady were dictators of the literary world. The gentlemen never mention their colleagues without some titular epithet, like those of Homer's heroes, "the ingenious," "the learned," "the acute," "the celebrated;" &c. &c. These and many such honours are indiscriminately distributed with quaint liberality, and are the more apt to excite merriment on account of the specious solemnity with which they are pronounced. It is not less entertaining, to behold them enter the lists with looks full of importance, and with tardy and measured strides. Here they vie with each other in sedateness, and decorum of demeanor. They would fain appear dispassionate as Cato, and magnanimous as Cæsar; but after exchanging some high-flown compliments

compliments and a few low bows, they change their note and their civilities for less gentle tones and expressions. Our humane German brethren, who complain of their own reciprocations of acrimony, as if nothing less would satisfy them than the complete destruction of their rivals, are accustomed to extol the good breeding of English authors. But they ought to consider, that no whirlwind rages on a narrow surface, and that shallow waters are little liable to be ruffled by the turbulence of waves.'

Mr. Gœde's remarks on the state of letters are not much distinguished either by depth or justice. His censure of our authors for flattering one another sounds oddly from a German, the literature of whose countrymen is principally known among us by their editions of the classics; whose expressions in respect to their brethren are full of the most unbounded eulogies; and who have not a note-maker, nor an *excursor*, nor an amanuensis, that is not *juvenis ornatissimus*, *vir egregius*, &c. &c. We should rather have expected a sarcasm on the tameness of our compliments. If, indeed, we were disposed to follow the example of a certain great assembly in substituting recrimination for defence, we might perhaps return his aggressions on the British press (which are grossly and ignorantly unjust) by an equally strong and more merited attack on that of Germany.

Much must be forgiven, however, in these representations to our disadvantage, where the desire to praise and respect our countrymen is in general so conspicuous. The definition of our phrase "a gentleman," which has puzzled almost all foreigners, is creditable to the author's liberality:

'The term 'gentleman,' in a limited sense, designates a polished individual; and the epithet 'genteel' is applied to every thing, which conveys the idea of beauty and propriety in manners and externals. Among all ranks of society, the mob only excepted, a general emulation to appear 'genteel' is conspicuous. Every one is acquainted with the constituent parts of this character; all readily recognize and reverence a 'gentleman;' and we may confidently assume, that the theory of polite manners is nowhere else so universal. Even the indigent mechanic will infallibly pass sentence upon the nobility according to this criterion, and will not hesitate to degrade an unmannerly and illiberal nobleman by the coarse epithet of 'a vulgar fellow.' It is generally presumed that elegant manners place the commonalty upon a level with the grandees, and that 'a gentleman' is in every rank of life equally respected.'

It may naturally be imagined that the assiduity of a stranger would discover many things which have been concealed from the indolence of natives; and no complaint is more common in conversation, than that the constant opportunity of seeing objects worthy of notice extinguishes the desire. Thus,

Mr. Gœde (p. 241 of Vol. II.) gives a very interesting account of an institution for 'the Deaf and Dumb,' which we believe is not so generally known to our countrymen as it should be; though he thinks that it is on the whole superior to that of the celebrated Abbé Sicard at Paris. Again, in enumerating our most conspicuous works of art, he speaks with merited applause of a noble statue, the neglect of which has always appeared to us disgraceful to the national taste:

'The two works above excepted are a bronze equestrian statue of Charles I. mounted, wrought by the masterly hand of Hubert de Soeur, at Charing-Cross, and a beautiful statue of James II. by Grinsling Gibbons.

'The latter stands almost unnoticed in the solitary court of the Banqueting-house. Its original place of destination was in the front of this building, on the very spot where Charles I. was beheaded. To this circumstance the whole expression of this excellent performance plainly refers. The figure of the king is represented in a pensive mood, regarding stedfastly that memorable place. His countenance is somewhat inclined towards his right side, and he extends his right arm, pointing to the fatal spot. The expression is matchless. The whole work has an air of simplicity and grandeur, extending even to the toga in which he is clothed.'

We cannot, however, speak in high terms of Mr. Gœde's general observations on the state of the arts. He talks with much contempt of the bare notion of an English school of painting, and of its founder, Sir Joshua Reynolds.—'Pray, who was this Sir Joshua Reynolds? A most respectable man, whose name was never mentioned by any of his acquaintance, without expressions of the highest regard, and who was undoubtedly one of the first portrait painters of his day. He has also exercised his genius in *single historical figures*, among which a Venus and a Ugolino in his dungeon are *recorded* as his most capital performances. But he never ventured to display his talents in any grand historical composition,' &c.—These sentences prove the tasteless negligence of the critic, much more than the painter's want of genius. In the first place, as he speaks of the *recorded* merits of these pictures, it is plain that he never saw them, though Ugolino is almost on his road from Dover to London. Had he condescended to stop at Knowle Palace, he would have seen that it is not a single figure, but a most powerful and impassioned historical composition: he would also have had an opportunity of inspecting the Gallery of Hans Holbein, which a *memorialist of nature and art* should have been peculiarly anxious to examine, as one of the most truly interesting *English* objects that the country could have presented to his observation.—

The

The above passage farther proves that he did not distinguish the death of Beaufort, and the Witches' Cave in Macbeth, from the ordinary productions at the Shakspeare Gallery, which he saw. He was also among the visitors to our annual exhibition at Somerset House, which he reviews without mentioning the names of Hoppner and Northcote among our painters, or that of Nollekens among the sculptors.

On the whole, we think that the minute accuracy of most of the details contained in this work may render it a tolerably useful guide to travellers, who wish to become familiar with the obvious points of the English character, and the ordinary matter of fact which appears on the surface of our manners: but these very circumstances make it the less interesting as a translation, for the perusal of British readers.

Den.

ART. V. *Prize Essays and Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland.*

[*Art. concluded from p.* 364. *No. for April.*]

AT the commencement of the third volume of these Essays, Archibald Drummond, Esq. presents us with an ingenious paper *on the natural history of the Herring*; in which he observes that the name is derived from the German word *heer*, signifying an army; that it is of the genus *Clupea*; and that the supposition is erroneous which identifies it with the Halec of the Romans, who were probably unacquainted with the Herring. The following specific characters of this fish are given:

'Upon an average their length is eight, but some scarcely seven, though others are as long as twelve inches; a fine silvery colour shines upon the belly and sides, the back somewhat greenish; the scales are large for the size of the fish, and come easily and regularly off; it has not the spots, nor the serrated ridge in the belly as in the shad; the lines are small and not easily perceived; the under jaw is a little longer than the upper; the dorsal fin consists of generally seventeen, the ventral fins of nine, the pectoral seventeen, the anal fourteen, and the tail forked with eighteen rays;—he dies instantly when taken out of the water, hence the proverb *dead as a herring*.'

Mr. D. positively asserts that Herrings deposit their spawn on our own shores in the months of November, December, and January, and that the eggs become animated in April; and he is of opinion that the spawn is impregnated by the male after it has been emitted by the spawner or female. The number of eggs produced by each female is estimated at 36,960. Respecting the food of this fish, Mr. D. offers nothing satisfactory. The object of their migration from the

deep seas is stated to be to cast their spawn in their native waters, and he combats the notion that they retire to the polar region:

'The varieties of our herrings may be reduced to two or three sizes; in the bays and lochs of our western territories, they are not only larger, but superior in taste and flavour to all others: from 650 to 800 fill a barrel. Those of the Friths of Forth and Tay, from about 1,000 to 1,100; high up the Murray Frith, it takes about 1,500 to the barrel. The Manks herring are perhaps not much inferior to those of our western Highlands, and from the spirit and industry with which this fishery is carried on, it is rapidly increasing in value and in consequence *.'

Well might the herring fishery be termed *a mine of wealth* to Scotland; and this writer urges his countrymen to work it vigorously, betaking themselves to *deep sea fishing*, which in a national point of view presents singular advantages.

Essay II. also relates to a subject which had been discussed at some length in the preceding volume; it is intitled *On Peat, its properties and uses*, by John Nasmith, Esq. By the close and philosophic attention which Mr. N. appears to have bestowed on this 'unseemly substance,' as he terms it, he is warranted in enunciating his deductions and opinions with some degree of authority, though they do not square with those which have been offered by preceding essayists. To the ligneous origin of Peat he does not subscribe; and he endeavours to account for the bodies of trees that are often found in peat-bogs, from which others have inferred that this matter is formed from forests anciently subverted and decomposed. He is persuaded that these substances are nothing else than an accretion of the vegetables designed by nature to thrive in the cold and damp, which water stagnating on the surface occasions; and that the accumulation is formed in high latitudes, in a neglected country, by one generation of these vegetables growing over another. The various plants which spring up in boggy soils, and the decay of which is supposed to generate peat, are distinctly enumerated, but for this catalogue we

* "The accounts from the Isle of Man respecting the herring-fishery, are of the most favourable nature. It had been successful to a considerable degree for some nights previous to Wednesday last; but the take of fish on that night was the most abundant ever known in the memory of the oldest man living, there were several boats which caught from 80 to 100 *maze* each.—The whole number taken is supposed not to be less than five millions and a half, and the weight upwards of 800 tons. The estimate of fish sold at Douglas on Thursday morning, at 3s. 5d. to 3s. 6d. per hundred, is 9080l." Edinburgh Advertiser, 14th Oct. 1803.'

must refer to the paper. The properties of this substance, viz. its inflammability, its power of resisting putrefaction, and its sterility or incapacity of producing vegetables in its natural state, are next considered. It has been found by experiment that 'peat differs widely from the putrescent vegetables usually converted into manure, as it yields scarcely any disengaged alkali, and a very minute proportion of salts that are of a septic quality, the greatest part being either insoluble or antiseptic:'—hence is derived its characteristic peculiarity of resisting corruption.

'One generation of vegetables grows over the top of another, and all remain with little diminution of their bulk, except what the pressure of the superior strata on the inferior occasions.' This antiseptic power, not only keeps the ingredients of peat in a state of preservation, but also all animal and vegetable susbtances which are immersed in it. Nor is this incorruptible quality confined to peat in its native bed. A peat cut for fuel, will continue in perfect preservation, so long as it is kept dry, and if buried whole in the ground after being dried, will remain for years very little affected.'

Its inability to nourish or furnish a pabulum for esculent plants, in its natural state, before it is pulverized or mixed with earth, is thus explained:

'The plants of which peat is formed, are all parasitical, growing on the back of others, and do not thrive in any other situation. Dr. Grew long ago discovered that parasitical plants differ widely from others, both in the formation of their vessels, and in the juices which they contain. Thus nature having, in all these instances, formed the plants in question on different principles, has not subjected them to the same laws of fermentation, by which other vegetables are decomposed.

'The natural incapacity of peat to produce esculent vegetables, results from the peculiarities of which we have been treating. It is destitute of earth, and composed of a congeries of vegetable fibres, which hold water like a sponge, in a sluggish state, fit to suffocate, not to feed land vegetables. Soils capable of fertility, are composed of two or more of the primitive earths, with a mixture of decayed animal or vegetable substances. It is the action and re-action of these ingredients on one another, and on the water that falls on them, which furnish a proper residence for the roots—receive the influences of the atmosphere—and with this aid, prepare the moisture in that state of minute division in which alone it can support the growth of land plants, by conveying to them the dissolved vegetable food. These qualifications are wanting in peat: and as it does not yield to corruption, growing plants can derive no food from its spoils.

'But though peat is very refractory, it is not altogether incapable of solution, so as to furnish food to cultivated plants, as other

decayed vegetables do. Whatever separates its parts, and destroys its original conformation, fits it for supporting the growth of esculent plants.'

From a number of experiments, made for the purpose of ascertaining the best methods of cultivating and rendering peat fertile, the following corollaries are deduced:

'1st. That though peat be incorruptible in its native state, when its original texture is deranged by smothered combustion, or by the intervention of foreign substances among its interstices, the carbon it contains becomes soluble in water, and furnishes abundant food to growing plants.

'2d. That the primitive earths, which are ingredients in other soils, are also necessary in peat, not only for the purpose of subduing its resistence to solution, but for affording the solidity requisite to permanent fertility.

'3d. That lime, differing widely in its qualities from the other earths occurring on the surface, is not capable of rendering pure peat soluble in water, unless it be accompanied with these earths; but combined with them increases the fertility of peat, by facilitating its decomposition. It also forms a soil favourable to the grasses.

'4th. That cohesive earth which has suffered torrefaction, such as brick-dust, is a most powerful solvent of peat.'

In conclusion, by a comparative estimate of expence and profit attendant on the conversion of peat-districts into fertile fields, Mr. N. endeavours to encourage attempts for reclaiming them from a state of nature.

On the Influence of Frost, and other varieties of bad weather, on the ripening of Corn: by the late Benjamin Bell, Esq. In northern latitudes, sun-beams are rarely of sufficient strength and continuance to bring grain into a state of perfect ripeness; it is therefore of some importance to inquire what may be accomplished by the aid of frost, and how far cold supplies the place of heat; or, to speak more correctly, how far the process of nature, in bringing seed to perfection, will advance under circumstances which appear unpropitious to it. With this view, Mr. Bell made a course of experiments; and he found that 'oats and barley, while still in a green state, bear considerable degrees of frost; that they both continue to acquire additional weight, although they are exposed to frost; and that this exposure does not destroy the principle of vegetation in either of them.' Peas and tares, as well as clover, were observed to suffer more severely by frost than barley or oats. Mr. B. ascertains the fact that corn will bear a considerable degree of frost and yet continue to fill; on which he informs the North British farmer that, in late harvests, unripe corn should not be too hastily cut. He does not, however,

however, recommend grain which has been exposed to frost as proper for seed: but advises that good corn should be imported from more southerly climates for this purpose; and, so far from acceding to the opinion that lean corn should be employed for raising crops, while the most heavy should be converted into flour, he decides on the fitness of sowing the best seed of every kind. We believe that he is right.

Plan and Description of Lime Kilns, built in 1801, by Brigadier-General Dirom, of Mount Annan, &c. &c. &c.—These kilns, which are copied in a great measure from a small lime-kiln in the late Mr. Jameson's soap-work at Leith, are constructed with the view of saving fuel, of calcining the stones equally, and of giving the burner the command of the heat: but the plan and section are necessary to elucidate the description.

Account of the improvement of a tract of barren ground covered with Heath, in an elevated situation of the county of Peebles, by Mr. Isaac Allan.—The quantity of land, on which this experiment was made, consisted of sixty one acres, 422 feet above the level of the sea, and worth in its natural state not more than 2s. 6d. per acre: but, by Mr. Allan's improvements, it is now reported to be worth between 15s. and 20s. per acre. A similar *improvement of a Moor, near Tranent, East Lothian,* by Mr. Robert Hay, at Standerts, is reported in the subsequent paper.

An Essay on the Grasses and other native plants most deserving of culture in Scotland, for Hay or Pasture, by the Rev. William Singers, minister of Kirkpatrick-juxta, Dumfriesshire.—Mr. S. is persuaded that to Scotland, as 'a land of flocks,' the contents of his paper will be peculiarly interesting, and particularly as his communications are the result of experience. His observations are arranged under four heads:

'1st. On the present state of the culture of our native plants, for the purposes of hay or pasture.

'2dly. On the particular plants which answer these purposes best, and are therefore most deserving of culture.

'3dly. On the most valuable combinations of these plants in our hay grounds or pasture fields.

'4thly. On the easiest and most effectual modes of cultivating them in different soils.'

Many pages are occupied by this essay. In the 2d part, a list is given of plants best adapted for hay or pasture in Scotland, with particular observations on each. They are thus enumerated:

'1st. *Trifolium*; trefoil; clover; broad red; white, and perennial red.

'2d. *Lolium*; darnel, rye grass, or ray grass; perennial and annual.

'3d. *Holcus lanatus*; soft meadow, or wooly grass.

'4th. *Poa trivialis*; common poa, or rough stalked meadow grass.

'5th. *Cynosurus cristatus*; crested dog's tail grass.

'6th. *Anthoxanthum odoratum*; scented vernal grass.

'7th. *Plantago lanceolata*; narrow leaved plantain, rib grass, or ribwort.

'8th. *Achillea millefolium*; common yarrow, or milfoil.

'9th. *Agrostis*; bent; fly bent, common, fine, and creeping bent.

'10th. *Juncus articulatus*; spratt.

'11th. *Aira*; hair grass. *Flexuosa*, waving; and *Cespitosa*, turfy.

'12th. *Festuca*, fescue; *F. Fluitans*, floating; *F. Ovina*, sheep's, and *F. Pratensis*, meadow fescue.

'13th. *Vicia sativa*; common sowing vetch.

'14th. *Bellis perennis*; field daisy.

'15th. *Lotus corniculatus*; bird's-foot trefoil.'

On the *Holcus lanatus*, or soft meadow grass, Mr. S. bestows a degree of commendation which will not be guaranteed by English farmers, nor by all Scotch agriculturists, as the next paper testifies. Of *Achillea Millefolium*, Milfoil or Yarrow, he says,

'In pasture there is not any plant that is more closely eaten down than this, by every domestic browsing animal. I have remarked with surprise, that spots of rich dry land, which were almost wholly filled with yarrow, were eaten down barer than even white clover. It is a strong rooted perennial, having many fine leaves, of a strong aromatic smell, and is considered not only very acceptable, but uncommonly healthy, or even medicinal, both for sheep and black cattle.

'It flowers late, commonly in August. But if cattle are admitted, not a stalk is permitted to rise into flower. The seeds must therefore be obtained from some rich dry spot, well stored with this plant; and if the soil be composted with good mould, I have found that the yarrow may be made into strong hay, whence it is easy to obtain seeds, which are of a peculiar winged form and appearance.

'I have not observed this plant in haughs, nor in wet soils, in abundance. But for dry rich soils, I am of opinion, that few plants deserve the preference before yarrow for the purpose of being depastured.'

To advert to all the hints and suggestions contained in this practical treatise is impossible: but, as a general recommendation of them to the Scotch farmers, it is sufficient to state that the author assures us that, by following the methods here suggested, he has himself both increased the quantity and improved the quality of his hay.

With

With a declaration of his passion for botanical pursuits, Mr. G. Don, Gardener at Edinburgh, prefaces his *Observations on some of the indigenous grasses of Britain, which seem deserving of culture for pasture or hay.* His given list of plants for the improvement of barren soils is as follows: 1. *Poa nemoralis.* 2. *Poa glauca.* 3. *Poa alpina.* 4. *Poa compressa.* 5. *Poa pratensis.* 6. *Poa trivialis.* 7. *Festuca rubra.* 8. *Festuca duriuscula.* 9. *Festuca pratensis.* 10. *Alopecurus pratensis.* 11. *Holcus lanatus.* 12. *Anthoxanthum odoratum.* 13. *Sesleria cœrulea.* 14. *Vicia cracca.* 15. *Medicago sativa.*

The first three grasses here mentioned, Mr. Don says, have been in a great measure overlooked by agricultural writers, but have attracted his notice in his botanical excursions. We shall transcribe his account of the *Poa Alpina:*

'This grass is also new to the agriculturist. I first found it in 1788, on a high rock called Corbie Craig, in the parish of Tannadice, and among stones near Airly castle in Angus-shire. It is also found near the summit of several of the Highland Alps; but in these very elevated situations it is always viviparous: that is, its flowers become perfect minute plants, which drop off and strike root in the ground; an admirable provision of nature for the propagation of the plant in such alpine regions, where the severity and continual moistness of the climate would in general prevent the seeds from ripening. Even in the most lofty and barren situations this plant would make excellent pasture; and I am certain that many soils and situations which could never be turned to account otherwise, might be rendered valuable as pasture by the introduction of this grass. It forms a good foggage, and even continues to grow through the winter. In short, the *Poa alpina* is one of the best grasses for establishing a green sod for pasture on upland grounds, where few good grasses would vegetate. It is true, that a hay crop could not be expected from it; but would it not amply repay the expence of labour, by converting sterile heaths into profitable sheep walks, and green fields for cattle? The enterprising and ingenious farmer might thus be enabled to improve immense tracts, at present not worth a shilling each acre annually, but which might in many cases become of fifty times that value.'

Though Mr. Don has admitted the *Holcus lanatus* into his catalogue, he gives it no commendation, but expressly calls it an inferior grass.

The remainder of the essay is employed in specifying the purposes to which the above-mentioned grasses may be applied, and in tendering the author's assistance to the Society and to the Scotch farmer in the collection of grass seeds.—An appendix treats of some indigenous plants and grasses *not* eligible for cultivation. Thus Mr. Don rounds his advice, pointing out *Quid sit pulchrum, quod turpe, quid utile, quid non.*

General Observations on the practice and principles of Irrigation, by the Rev. William Singers.

Report

Report of a survey of Watered Meadows situated on or near the rivers Esk, Ewes, Tiviot, Etterick and Yarrow, made in 1804 *and* 1805, by the same.

Above a hundred pages are devoted to these two papers on Irrigation, which are illustrated by three plates: but the details and reports are too numerous for transcription. The practice is recommended by an estimate of the benefits of the watered meadows which were the objects of Mr. Singers's survey:

'1st. The expence of laying out and inclosing these meadows is the principal obstacle. But when this expence is moderate, and the meadow succeeds well, a single year's crop almost or entirely defrays the charges. When matters are less favourable, they may still be liquidated in two or three seasons.

'2d. The attention which becomes necessary to the watered meadows, in upholding them, and conducting the watering process, is mentioned as an incumbrance. I admit the fact, but what does the farmer obtain without attention?

'3d. The danger of occasioning the rot among sheep has been mentioned as an objection to irrigation; but this was done only by such as were not properly informed.

'4th. I have heard it alleged that the hay of watered meadows is not wholesome food for *horses*; that it breaks their wind; and that a carrier rejects it on this account. In reply to this allegation, it may be stated, that instances are given in the survey, of respectable persons having fed horses with such hay from their watered meadows, as they judged proper to give them, without any detriment being sustained.

'In behalf of the system of watering, the following arguments occur, which it is hoped will be admitted to be well grounded, viz.

'1st. There is an increase in the quantity of hay, which enables the farmer to sell part of it for money.

'2. If the farmer prefer wintering cattle, he may support a greater number, or he may feed them in a more liberal manner. And in this district in summer so fertile in grass, and in winter so abounding in storms, this consideration is of material importance; as a well wintered beast yields more nett profit, than any two which have been poorly fed, in that inclement season.

'3d. The additional hay raised, increases the quantity of farm manure; the advantages of which are soon perceived in the superior produce of the manured crops.

'4th. If an early growth of meadow grass enables the farmer to put in weak ewes during spring, he may find such a convenience of great value, for the preservation of the lambs.

'5th. The pasturage of these meadows after the hay is removed, is generally found to be so profitable, as to balance the original pasturage of the meadow grounds, throughout the year.

'6th. To feed sheep, the hay of these meadows is of importance, in so far as it saves the expence of snow retreats; which, for these numerous stocks, are now hardly to be obtained. But

'7th. The *risk* is a more serious matter in such a case, than the *expences* to be incurred; and this risk is always obviated to a certain extent, by means of the meadow hay. Should the store-master neither

ther be able to find hay, nor to bespeak a retreat for his flock, what would he then give to obviate the risk of immediate loss of sheep through famine, or of heavy losses in spring, occasioned by the reduction which want causes, in the health and condition of his flock?"

It is repeatedly observed, in the course of these volumes, that to obtain an ample supply of provender for the winter months should be the great object of the Northern farmer.

A treatise on the diseases of Sheep; drawn up from original communications presented to the Highland Society of Scotland; by Andrew Duncan, jun. M.D. F.R.S.E. and A.L.S.L.—Several treatises having been sent to the Society in consequence of the premium offered for the best essay on the accidents and disorders to which sheep are liable, and no one of them being so complete in itself or so superior to the others as to be deemed worthy of the whole prize,—though they furnished, taken together, much original and valuable information,—the Society wisely determined on putting the whole into the hands of some professional gentleman, for the purpose of collecting the matter which they severally contained, into one general treatise. Dr. Duncan was selected for this undertaking, and appears to have judiciously executed it, in a paper which extends through nearly 200 pages. The ample information which it affords, respecting symptoms of diseases and modes of prevention and cure, must be highly acceptable to the grazier: but even the titles of the sections are too numerous for us to transcribe them. An appendix contains distinct papers *on the annual losses of sheep; on the different ways of rearing hogs* (wedder kogs), *on the varieties of sheep pastures*; and *an account of Mr. Brydon*, whose name is deservedly recorded as a great improver of sheep-farming in Scotland. The merit of this farmer consisted in converting grounds, that had been rejected on account of the *rot and poke* which they gave to sheep fed on them, into healthy and valuable pastures.

On the introduction of sheep-farming into the Highlands, and on the plan of Husbandry adapted to the soil and climate, and to the general and solid interests of that country: by the Rev. William Singers. It does not appear that the important points connected with the subject of this concluding essay have been at all determined; and its industrious author has commendably endeavoured to "lighten the darkness" of his countrymen, by inquiring into the effects produced by sheep-farming in the Highlands; by ascertaining the limits of sheep-husbandry; by giving directions for the management of sheep and black cattle, and for determining their comparative value; and by specifying the leading objects which should occupy

occupy the attention of a Highland farmer, who is bent on improvement. We extract the conclusion, which contains the particulars of the plan, as well as the arguments by which Mr. Singers enforces his advice:

'The true economy of the soil in the Highlands of Scotland embraces these four capital objects,—*sheep*, *cattle*, *inclosures for crops*, and *plantations for trees*. All these branches are mutually subservient to each other; all of them are adapted, each on its own scale, to the climate and soil of the country; and they all contribute to the solid comforts and prosperity of the people in all stations; the proprietors, the farmers, and the public at large. The Highlands are laid out for pasturage by the hand of nature, and sheep are the true staple; but the country is also naturally laid out for every part of mixed husbandry; all the necessary materials abounding; and every part, like the links of a golden chain, being connected with and depending on one another. Cattle, alone, are not, and cannot be a safe stock; sheep reared exclusively, turn all into a waste. The trees, if suffered to overspread the country, would convert it into a wilderness; and cropping on a large scale is more than hazardous, it is impracticable. The system which has been here recommended, is not theoretical; it is well known and fully approved in kindred soils, climates, and surfaces. This system would introduce the profits and comforts of each branch, without allowing either to go to an extreme. The sheep would occupy those mountains which nature herself has assigned to them; and the hand of industry would furnish them with shelter, medicine, and the means of preservation, in great emergencies; the black cattle would not only be preserved from extermination, but reared with such comforts as they have not generally known; in return for which, they would furnish much comfort and ample profits to the kind owners; the inclosures would produce sweet grass, hay, and green food for sheep and cattle; and grain and roots enough, I am persuaded, to subsist an increased population, and enrich the industrious tenant. In the mean time, the woods, clothed with beauty, rise to protect and ornament the country, and to furnish to its people the means of innumerable comforts and advantages, and to the proprietors a certain source of increasing wealth.'

We cannot close these volumes without observing, with surprise, that the opinions of Scottish naturalists and fishermen differ so much respecting the natural history of the salmon and the herring, as they are seen to do in these pages. It will not be expected that we should decide when these *doctors* and men of experience *disagree*: but we must express a wish that the subjects may not be abandoned till some of the most important points are fully ascertained.

The science displayed in these communications is honourable to the authors; and they are indicative of a general spirit of research and exertion from which much good must ultimately result.

ART. VI. *An Elementary Course of the Sciences and Philosophy:* contained in a Series of Lectures delivered by the Author to his own Pupils, upon the principal Branches of Elementary Mathematics, Mechanics, Astronomy, and Cosmography. By J. B. Florian-Jolly, A.M. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. Stockdale.

IF the author of these volumes purposes to extend his search into the depths of pure science and of physics, many of his pupils will grow grey before his lectures are concluded:—that is, if he preserves his present rate of advancement; for in the two octavo volumes before us, containing between six and seven hundred pages, he has discussed only addition, multiplication, vulgar fractions, decimals, the rule of three, extraction of roots, proportions, plain and solid geometry, and rectilinear trigonometry. If, indeed, he can spin out the thread of his existence as he spins out the staple of his matter, he may in time teach how corpuscules attract, and how the planets revolve in their orbs: but we must expect to be low in the earth before Mr. Florian-Jolly has thus reached the skies.—Yet he himself by no means thinks that the age of Nestor will be necessary, either to write or to understand his lectures. He imagines that, as to the contents of the present volume, with the whole of *antient geography and history*, a boy or girl of twelve or thirteen years old might be expected to know them: then three years more would take them through mechanics, astronomy, physics, modern history, and geopraphy; and, when arrived at the age of sixteen, they would still have two years at least to devote to the *philosophy of nature*, morality, &c. *We* have many things yet to learn; and, if age shall not be said to have destroyed the docility of our nature, we would willingly go again to school, under Mr. Florian-Jolly, for surely nobody teaches so many important things so quickly!

Mr. F. J. lays much stress on his Introduction; and he intreats the reader to reflect *profoundly* on it, that he may not be discouraged by the *seeming immensity* of the system. Perhaps the author will hence be able to assign the cause which prevents *us* from being enamoured with his plan and labours, since we must confess that we have *not* reflected *profoundly* on the matter of the Introduction. Indeed, we think that it might have been altogether omitted; and of what use, when the multiplication of fractions and the extraction of roots were to be taught, is his map of man under various relations? Can any real knowlege be gained by a student exorcising his genius to answer the three questions, "Where am I?" "Who am I?" "What am I here for?" These inquiries have no concern with rules of interest, or the properties of triangles. The prolixity of the work, however, is not a pure and unmixed evil; and

and it is proper for us to acknowlege that, in his long explanations, Mr. F. J. frequently illustrates things very clearly and satisfactorily: but the lengths of verbal explanation ought not to have been continued throughout his volumes: they should have been restrained to the beginnings of his subjects, or only occasionally admitted.—They should, indeed, have been used to make symbolical operations and processes plain and distinct; for, even in several simple cases, these latter are more satisfactory and distinct than the same operations expressed and expanded in words. In confirmation of this opinion, we would adduce the *multiplication of decimals* of the present volumes, in which the author has in many words stated the reason of the rule, which, by the aid of symbols, would in one fourth of the space have been much more distinctly explained.

As we have already observed, the author, after having written two volumes, makes no great inroads into science. In the 300dth page of Vol. II. he treats of oblique triangles; and, in speaking of the case in trigonometry in which two sides and the included angle are given, he says, 'this proposition is the most complicate, but at the same time the *highest conception* in rectilinear trigonometry!' This needs no comment.—At the end of every chapter, he subjoins queries relative to preceding matter: some of which are useful, but others are rather calculated to excite a smile than to extort ingenious answers: e. g. What triangles must necessarily fall under consideration in rectilinear trigonometry? What do you remark on a line to which another is perpendicular? &c. These questions remind us of certain interrogatories, no doubt the invention of sportive malice, said to have been proposed by a learned University on instituting public examinations:—"What are the three angles of a triangle equal to?"—"What is the exterior angle of a triangle greater than?"—Some of the author's mathematical questions have a moral tendency; and he solves two cases in progression, as a salutary caution to young men against indulging without reflection in a taste for gaming and taking bets.

It would be unjust to dwell longer on those parts which may deserve censure, or excite a smile; because, as we have already stated, specimens are not wanting of lucid and exact explanation. For instance, speaking of algebra:

'This method is infinitely more favourable to reasoning than arithmetic; because you distinguish each quantity by one of the letters of the alphabet, as was done for the indeterminate number of men in the last instance, and consequently you never lose sight of the given quantities through the whole operation, which cannot be done in arithmetic; for, as soon as you have combined two or three numbers, you

can no longer discern in the sum which were the original numbers, and by what combination this sum was produced: 12, for instance, may as well be produced by the addition of 4 and 8, of 7, 2 and 3, &c., as by the multiplication of 3 by 4, or of 6 by 2.'—

'The object of algebraical calculation is, as you see, to lead you finally to determine by what operation of arithmetic the result will be obtained; and this conclusion is derived from a series of observations and reasoning: but as the same reasoning would apply to all similar cases, it is unnecessary to go again over the whole of it for every problem; and the principles being once established and understood, general methods have been formed to disengage the unknown quantity, so as to present it alone in one member of the equation, and place in the other member, to which that unknown quantity is equal, all the known quantities, with the signs indicating the changes they are to undergo.'

Mr. Florian-Jolly has formerly been at our tribunal more than once; and we are sorry that, on the present occasion, we do not find ourselves warranted in bestowing the commendation which in those instances we freely offered.

R.W.

ART. VII. *Practical Observations on Urinary Gravel and Stone*; on Diseases of the Bladder and prostate Gland; and on Strictures of the Urethra. By Henry Johnston, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons of Edinburgh. Crown 8vo. pp. 223. 5s. boards. Hill, Edinburgh; Murray, London.

IT is certainly with justice that Mr. Johnston characterizes the subjects on which he treats as of the first importance. 'Few diseases,' he remarks, 'are more common than those of the urinary organs, more troublesome in their management, or, in general, more difficult of cure. The slightest disorders of these parts seldom fail to occasion both anxiety and inconvenience; whilst there are others of a more serious nature, which give rise to very great and long continued misery, often terminating fatally; hence their alleviation and cure have ever been objects of much solicitude.'

The affections of the urinary organs he divides into four classes: 'gravel in its different stages, from the urine loaded with sandy matter, to confirmed stone; contractions, thickenings, schirrhosities, and ulcerations of the bladder; affections of the prostate gland; to which certainly may be added, strictures of the urethra.'

Mr. J. commences his consideration of the urinary calculus, by some remarks on its chemical composition, and points out the important elucidation which the subject has received from the researches of modern chemists. Scheele, as is well known, was the first experimentalist who led to proper views respect-

respecting it, and whose discoveries may be regarded as the basis of all the knowlege which we at present possess; and the track which was opened by this distinguished chemist has since been successfully pursued by others, both in our own island and on the continent. In France, MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin have particularly attended to the composition of urinary calculi; and several very important discoveries concerning them have been made in this country by Dr. Wollaston. The united labors of these experimentalists have proved the general accuracy of Scheele's observations: but they have also shewn that a greater variety existed in the chemical constitution of calculi than was suspected by him. Disregarding the more minute shades of difference, we may arrange them under three principal species; those which consist of uric acid, or of this acid united to ammoniac; those which consist of the phosphoric salts; and those that are formed of the oxalate of lime. The first of these are of the most frequent occurrence, and the last are most rare.

After having given an account of the means by which these different kinds of calculi may be discriminated from each other, the author proceeds to detail the symptoms that indicate their presence, according to the situation which they occupy, first in the kidney, and afterward when they arrive at the bladder. The diagnosis is laid down, by which the affections depending on calculus are distinguished from other diseases of the same parts; a diagnosis which is, in some cases, attended with a considerable degree of difficulty. The disease most apt to be confounded with calculus of the kidney is the rheumatic affection of the muscles of the loins, called lumbago; while strictures in the urethra, or a thickened state of the bladder, are not unfrequently mistaken for a stone in this cavity.

With regard to the cure of calculous complaints, the most important part of the inquiry respects the efficacy of alkalies; for alkalies, under *some* form, have been the basis of all the medicines that have, from time to time, acquired a reputation for relieving these affections. That this class of bodies has a considerable effect cannot be doubted, and yet it is not easy to account for their mode of operation. It does not appear to be decided whether any medicine taken by the mouth can dissolve a calculus when once formed: but it is certain that all the painful symptoms may be in a great measure mitigated, or even entirely removed. Mr. Johnston inclines to the opinion that the alkalies ought to be employed in their caustic state: but we suspect that he is, in this instance, led to judge rather from theory than from experience. The alkaline carbonates, in their operation as palliatives, seem to possess every

power

power of the pure alkali, while they must be less injurious to the digestive organs; and it is still undecided whether the caustic alkali can be employed so as to dissolve the stone.—He concludes his chapter on calculus by giving an account of the method proposed by Fourcroy for removing these substances, by injecting solvents into the bladder. It is a proposal that has been frequently suggested, and which bears a plausible appearance: but it has not been found to produce the expected advantages, when actually put in practice. This failure depends, no doubt, in some degree, on the fact that the attempts formerly made did not proceed on the scientific principles which are now so clearly established by the modern discoveries in chemistry. On the whole, however, it is a practice which, we apprehend, will seldom be adopted: but, should it ever be tried, we think that the directions of M. Fourcroy are in all respects worthy of our attention.

Chapters II. and III. treat on the diseases of the bladder and the prostate gland. These affections are less frequent in their occurrence, and are marked by less decisive symptoms, than those which form the subject of the first chapter; their cure is also less certain; and palliative measures are often the only steps that we can take. In the diseases of the bladder, Mr. J. directs the attention of the practitioner to the use of the *uva ursi*: a remedy which has by some been much extolled, but which at present is not regarded as being possessed of much efficacy.

In the 4th chapter, Mr. Johnston discusses the important subject of stricture in the urethra; detailing the symptoms of the disease with accuracy, and examining the degree of success that has attended the different means recommended for its removal. He is himself a decided advocate for the use of caustics, and endeavours to obviate the objections that have been urged against them. His remarks are candid and judicious, and for the most part very exactly coincide with the opinion that we have been induced to form on the same subject. The only point in which we are disposed to differ relates to the propriety of employing the lunar caustic in the less frequent variety of the disease, in which the stricture consists of a long irregular contraction of the canal. Here, we apprehend, the bougie might be adopted with more advantage; or, if any caustic be applied, we should be inclined to use the *kali purum*, as recommended by Mr. Whately.

We shall only add that we have perused Mr. Johnston's treatise with much satisfaction; and we would especially recommend it to the young practitioner, as a safe guide for forming his judgment, and directing his operations, in a class of intricate and important diseases.

ART. VIII. *A System of Operative Surgery, founded on the Basis of Anatomy.* By Charles Bell. Vol I. Royal 8vo. pp. 480. and many plates. 18s. boards. Longman and Co. 1807.

FROM the preface to this volume, we learn that its design is, in some respects, different from that of any publication which has hitherto been given to the world. Mr. Bell states that his intention 'is to present to the student, and to the surgeon, such clear, short, and strong views of the objects of our operation; of the manner of operating; and of the difficulties which may unexpectedly present themselves—as an experienced surgeon would wish to impress on the mind of one in whom he is much interested:—such a view, in short, of operative surgery, as, without putting aside the information gained in general study, may guard against the distraction of difficulties and doubts, when the knife is actually in the hand.' That the object which Mr. Bell proposes to himself is possessed of some peculiar advantages, we are ready to admit: but we confess that it is not clear to us whether these are not more than counterbalanced by corresponding disadvantages. The work, as far as it is now executed, certainly impresses us, through all its parts, with the idea of something imperfect. The information conveyed by it is not sufficiently ample to supersede the regular elementary systems; nor is it so far original as to be perused with any great interest by those who have passed through their noviciate. It indeed contains many sensible remarks, and some valuable hints, that may lead to future improvements in practice: but with these is blended a large proportion of matter which, without being exceptionable, is rather common-place. In passing this judgment, which may perhaps be deemed too severe, we are influenced, in some measure, by the opinion which we had formed of the author's talents, from his previous publications: for we acknowlege that, in the present instance, the sight of Mr. Charles Bell's name in the title page raised expectations which were not altogether justified by a perusal of the treatise.

After some introductory remarks on wounds, we have a chapter devoted to the operation of bleeding in the arm, with the accidents which sometimes succeed it; and afterward one on aneurism. They are intitled to the negative commendation of containing nothing that is objectionable: but they do not entirely correspond to the idea that we were led to form of a work which directly professes to be original. We must, however, except the information contained in one of the notes, respecting the success of Mr. Lynn's practice in the operation for popliteal aneurism; which we apprehend to be much

greater

greater than that which usually falls to the lot of any operator, and which is the more interesting, as it would seem to depend on the employment of a new but very simple expedient:

'Mr. Lynn, of the Westminster hospital, has performed the operation for aneurism in the fore part of the thigh, eleven times in Mr. Hunter's manner, and only one of the patients he lost from hæmorrhagy, owing to the bursting of the artery. He argues thus: "when I have dissected the arteries of the thigh in the dead body, I find that on bending the thigh, the arteries hang loose, and are too long for the thigh, and do not keep their places; therefore, I conceive that after the operation for aneurism, I am enabled by managing the position of the thigh alone, keeping it easily relaxed, to give full freedom for the artery to contract without cutting it across."

The third chapter, on stricture in the urethra, has more claim on our attention, on account of its containing a suggestion which, we think, may prove of considerable practical utility. Mr. Bell conceives that strictures do not always possess the form that was described by Mr. Hunter, but that they occasionally consist of a long irregular contraction, an inch or more in length. To this last species of the disease, he justly thinks that the lunar caustic is an improper application, and recommends the use of the *kali purum*. (See p. 49 of this Rev.) It hence becomes a matter of importance to distinguish between the two varieties of the disease; and in order to accomplish this object, he has invented an instrument, which consists of a metallic ball, fixed to the end of a wire. By having balls of different sizes, and by noticing the circumstances which attend their passage along the canal, we may form a tolerably accurate judgment of the size and extent of the obstruction.

Our attention is next called to observations on hæmorrhoidal tumors, affections of the uterus, hydrocele, *polypus nasi*, and some other complaints of minor importance; and then we come to the subject of hernia. This is treated in an ample manner; and the account of the disease, and of the means employed for its removal, is correct and judicious. Still, however, we do not meet with much information that is not contained in other publications; so that, notwithstanding the accuracy of Mr. Bell's descriptions, and the good sense which is manifested in his advice, we feel a degree of disappointment at finding, in a production like the present, so little that can lay any claim to originality. We remark, indeed, one idea which the author strongly enforces, and which he seems to regard as peculiar to himself, that the immediate cause of death in hernia is not from obstruction in the bowels, but from inflammation brought on in the higher part of the intestine, in consequence of its efforts to propel its

contents. We are, however, inclined to think that, if Mr. Bell had not determined to write *without consulting his library*, he might have found the same doctrine very fully laid down by some of his contemporaries.—Several good observations occur on the nature of the sac, and on the part which immediately forms the stricture. This, Mr. Bell supposes, is generally produced not by the tendons of the ring, but by the mouth of the sac; and he argues strongly in favor of freely opening this part. He remarks on Mr. Cooper's method of operating, which consists in passing the knife between the ring and the sac, that it is not always practicable; and, when it is done, that it is frequently ineffectual. As an objection to cutting into the mouth of the sac, it has been stated that, by this mode, inflammation is apt to be induced on the peritoneum, which may spread along the cavity of the abdomen and prove fatal: but Mr. Bell inclines to the opinion that, when inflammation supervenes in these instances, it has its origin in the intestines themselves. He acknowleges, however, that this is a point which requires farther elucidation.

In the chapter on femoral hernia, the author is desirous of proving, that the part which has been lately described under the title of the femoral ligament, and brought forwards as something either not before known or not adequately noticed, was well understood by Mr. Pott; and that, in his own "Dissections," a description is given of it more accurate than any which has been since published. We are sorry to feel ourselves obliged to differ from Mr. Bell on this subject. We have examined the passages in his former work, (which we highly esteem,) and we have considered the remarks of Mr. Pott:—but the conclusion that we must draw from them is, that they neither of them express the true anatomy of the parts. Both Mr. Pott and Mr. Bell were aware of some peculiarity in the form of the tendon of the external oblique muscle, but they were not so thoroughly acquainted with its nature as to be able to state precisely its extent, or the influence which it would have over the operation. In this precision it is that the merit of M. Gimbernat and Mr. Hey consists.

We have then an interesting chapter on lithotomy; an operation to which the author appears to have paid great attention. He describes it as it is usually performed with the gorget, and afterward gives an account of the method which has been lately practised by Mr. Lynn and Mr. Carlisle, in the Westminster hospital; who have revived the operation of Frere Cosme, which consists in passing the concealed bistoury into the bladder, instead of the gorget. Mr. Bell objects to both these

these operations, on the principle of their being too mechanical, proceeding precisely in the same manner, and employing exactly the same kind of motions indiscriminately in all instances, without any regard to the peculiarities of structure, or the nature of the particular case. For this reason he gives a decided preference to the knife, and describes an operation which is certainly more simple and more scientific; and which we should undoubtedly recommend, were lithotomy always to be performed by skilful anatomists: but we are inclined to think that, in vulgar hands, the gorget is the safer instrument.

We shall quote Mr. Bell's account of his operation:

'The staff is kept in the centre, and well home into the bladder. The surgeon, making his incision under the arch of the pubes, and by the side of the anus, carries it deeper towards the face of the prostate gland; cutting near to the staff, but yet not cutting into it, and avoiding the rectum, by pressing it down with the finger.

'Now, carrying the finger along the staff, the prostate gland is felt. The point of the knife is run somewhat obliquely into the urethra, and into the lateral groove of the staff, just before the prostate gland.

'The knife is run on in the groove of the staff, until the urine flows. The fore-finger follows the knife, and is slipped along the back of it, until it is in the bladder.

'Having carried the fore finger into the bladder, it is kept there, and the knife is withdrawn; then, directed by the finger, the forceps are introduced into the bladder.

'If the stone is not readily caught betwixt the blades of the forceps, the finger is passed into the anus, which, lifting up the lower part of the bladder, the stone is put within the grasp of the forceps, and assisted in its exit, if it be of great size.'

Four chapters on amputation are added, and two on injuries of the head, the latter of which contain many valuable observations.

Bos.

ART IX. *Dissertations, on Man, Philosophical, Physiological, and Political;* in Answer to Mr. Malthus's "Essay on the Principle of Population." By T. Jarrold, M.D. 8vo. pp. 367. 10s. 6d. boards. Cadell and Davies.

ART. X. *A Reply to the Essay on Population, by the Rev. T. R. Malthus.* In a series of Letters. To which are added Extracts from the Essay; with Notes. 8vo. pp. 378. 8s. boards. Longman and Co.

THE judgment which we pronounced on Mr. Malthus's performance has been ratified by public opinion: its merits have been almost universally acknowleged; and the prin-

 ciples

* By Hazlitt.

ciples and conclusions which it inculcates and supports have met with very general assent. Yet the facility with which its doctrines may be mis-represented, and a plausible cry be raised against them, which was noticed by us in our account of his *Essay*, is exemplified in the productions before us. That grand proposition, expressing the relation between the principle of population and the means of subsistence, which is the basis of Mr. Malthus's system, is immediately perceived to be impregnable: but it might happen that, with all the care and caution which distinguish the labors of its not less ingenuous than ingenious author, this principle might not always be correctly and happily applied to the institutions and maxims which were submitted by him to its test. An erroneous section found a place in the *Principia Mathematica*;—the chapter on power in the *Essay on the Human Understanding*, admirable as it is on the whole, is justly charged with being obscure and inconsistent in some of its parts;—and Dr. Smith, who corrected so many errors of the economists, fails himself on the subject of productive labour. The foundation of Mr. Malthus's system admitting of no question, as we conceive, still all the collateral points might not be equally well considered; and some might require to be corrected, and others to be qualified or extended.

On these grounds, we opened with some satisfaction the publications which we now announce: but this satisfaction was not of long continuance, since we soon found that the champions who had taken up the gauntlet, on the present occasion, were endowed with only slender qualifications; and that, contented to play off the hacknied artifices of controversialists, they scorn even to aim at philosophical discussion. We must by no means, however, confound together these two opponents of Mr. Malthus; to the former of whom a moderate degree of censure is alone applicable, while strong language is required to express the degree in which blame has been incurred by the latter.

Of wilful perversion we fully acquit Dr. Jarrold: but we conceive that he must have very slightly examined the work which he criticises, or that his mind is not formed for abstract disquisitions, or is not stored with the furniture necessary to take a part in them with advantage. It has been said, and we believe that facts warrant the assertion, that many instances occur of men making considerable proficiency in elegant literature, who are wholly without aptitude for metaphysical inquiries. We should be inclined to place Dr. Jarrold in this class. He even controverts the grand principle which is the foundation of Mr. Malthus's system. He cannot

not dispute the fact of the geometrical series being applicable to the progress of American population, but he appears to deny its universality, and to regard this ratio as partial and confined to certain peculiar situations. He objects that population has not this spring in Europe, overlooking the fact to which he is himself continually referring, viz. the operation of those checks to which Mr. Malthus ascribes the circumstance of its being stationary in old countries.—A very few specimens of the author's statements and reasonings will enable our readers to judge of his competence for entering the lists with such a philosopher as Mr. Malthus:

'Mr. Godwin,' says he, 'attaches blame to the institutions of man, but Mr. Malthus fixes it on the laws of nature; the one accuses the civil government, the other the government of the universe. Our author having, as he flatters himself, traced the checks to population, which he enumerates under the heads of vice and misery, and fixed them among the laws of nature, is so anxious for the full exercise of their power, that in his zeal he pleads for murder, in some circumstances, not as a discretionary, but a necessary act.'

The imperfect nature of human enjoyments, and the large portion of misery which falls to the lot of man, are facts which nobody disputes. Mr. Godwin ascribed these to our institutions, and promised a paradise to mankind if they would shake off and annihilate them. Mr. Malthus vindicated our institutions from this charge: being of opinion, with all sober men in all ages, that they are, even in their most imperfect and perverted state, beneficial; and that the ills which we feel and deplore arise chiefly out of the constitution of things, and are not wholly to be laid to the charge of human laws, the institution of marriage, the obligation of promises, or the prevalence of the private affections and grateful habits. One gentleman intimated that, if civil institutions were swept away, and if men would practice the new philosophy, it was probable that they would become immortal. Had Mr. Malthus shewn that mortality was inherent in man by his original constitution, would this be to attach blame to the laws of nature, and the government of the universe? It would only be to state a simple incontrovertible fact; and we cannot see that *he* does honor to the laws of nature and the government of the universe, who promises that, if we introduce Agrarian regulations, we shall be in a likely course to annihilate death.

'*He pleads for murder*,' says Dr. J.—We spoke highly in praise of Mr. Malthus's work; but we can assure our readers that, had we discovered in it any thing like a plea for murder, we should, instead of bestowing almost unqualified commendation on it, have consigned it to universal execration. Now

let us see how it is that he pleads for murder. While expatiating on the tendency of the principle of population to overstock the world, Mr. M. elucidates his argument by the help of allegory; and, on account of its neatness, we are induced to transcribe the passage, as here quoted by Dr. Jarrold:

"If a child is born into a world already possessed, if he cannot get subsistence from his parents, on whom he has a just demand, and if the society do not want his labour, he has no claim of right to the smallest portion of food, and in fact has no business to be where he is. At nature's mighty feast there is no vacant cover for him; she tells him to be gone, and will quickly execute her own orders, if he do not work on the compassion of some of her guests; if these guests get up and make room for him, other intruders immediately appear, demanding the same favor. The report of a provision for all that come, fills the hall with numerous claimants; the order and harmony of the feast is disturbed; plenty that before reigned, is changed into scarcity; and the happiness of the guests is destroyed by the spectacle of misery and dependence in every part of the hall, and by the clamorous importunity of those who are justly enraged at not finding the provision which they had been taught to expect. The guests learn too late their error in counteracting those strict orders to all intruders issued by the great mistress of the feast, who, wishing that all her guests should have plenty, and knowing that she could not provide for unlimited numbers, humanely refused to admit fresh comers when her table was already full."

Here Mr. Malthus simply states the consequences which must inevitably follow when population exceeds its due bounds. If more men are born than can obtain subsistence, must it not follow that some will perish from want, or from unwholesome food? To state this consequence, which in the circumstances is inevitable, and which no man can controvert, is this to plead for murder?

In the same spirit of misconception, (we will not say of wilful misrepresentation, for we are inclined to think that it is not so,) the Dr. thus proceeds:

'This sentence might have been applauded in the councils of Nero, or in the camps of Attila or of Cortez; for the indiscriminate murders committed by the orders of these chiefs could not fail to produce in their minds an idea that the conduct they had sanctioned and commanded would be deemed monstrous by the bulk of mankind; how must they then be gratified at finding that, in place of an execrable, they had acted a meritorious part; and that the numbers they had slain, were only the unprotected guests, who craved admittance to a table already full, to take which away from the hall, was to render those who remained an acceptable service.'

Dr. J. here confounds the laws and provisions of nature with the acts of tyrants. Because Mr. Malthus says that, if the world

world is overstocked, wars and famine and pestilence will ensue, does it follow that men are at liberty to violate all laws human and divine, in order to ward off the evils? In his volume, we find not a syllable in favour of any such conclusion: he represents the whole as being in the hands of nature, and enters into the details of this part of her economy.

This writer elsewhere speaks of the principles of Mr. Malthus as incompatible with revelation, as forbidding the expectation of any improvement in the condition of man, and as sanctioning the worst of rulers in the worst of crimes. Had he made himself more fully acquainted with Mr. M.'s system, or had he been endowed with a mind better adapted for inquiries of this nature, he would have seen that neither of the charges preferred by him against the principles of the *Essay on Population* is well founded; and it would have been clear to him that revelation, by giving superior efficacy to the principle of moral restraint, admirably harmonizes with the doctrine of that performance. According to Mr. M., this world will never be, as some have represented, a Paradise of Mahomet; his principles, it is indubitable, disturb dreams of this sort: but if he flatters not mankind, he has, we conceive, given them more important practical information on the real nature of their situation than any other philosopher who has preceded him, whether antient or modern. His representation of it, we grant, is not such as our wishes would predict: but has it not the sanction of reason and experience? That it has not, the present author no where shews. Many philosophers had recommended early marriages; Mr. Malthus says that they must in general be late: but why should this forbid us to expect improvement in human affairs? Mr. Malthus asserts that nature requires us to impose restraint on a predominant passion of our nature; and that she invariably punishes those who in this respect disregard her "high behests:" but he has never said that she has delegated her authority to rulers, and that she warrants their crimes.

Though we have been unable to discover in Dr. Jarrold's pages any objections which materially affect the great bearings of Mr. Malthus's system, we must allow that our perusal of them has not been altogether *unproductive labour*. The author writes perspicuously and fluently; many of his observations, though inapplicable to the subjects in controversy, are in themselves valuable and interesting; and if he almost uniformly deals unfairly by Mr. Malthus, he does not openly brave all decency, and throw off all the restraints which the gentleman and the scholar will ever feel himself bound to regard. This is a compliment which we cannot pay to the latter of the

authors

authors before us; and, indeed, he has taken no common pains to forfeit his right to every claim of the kind. In his advertisement, this anonymous opponent of Mr. Malthus is pleased thus to express himself:

'If I could have attacked the work successfully, without attacking the author, I should have preferred doing so. But the thing was impossible. Who ever troubles himself about abstract reasonings, or calm, dispassionate inquiries after truth? The public ought not to blame me for consulting their taste.'

It is seldom our lot to meet with any passage more reprehensible than this paragraph. That this writer could not attack the work in question without attacking its author, by which is to be understood attacking him personally with rudeness and vulgarity, is a gratuitous assertion which is wholly unsupported. If the public have no right to reproach this controversialist, is he to subject himself to self-reproach; or is he to degrade and prostitute letters, in order to gratify the vitiated propensity which he imputes to the world in general? We had understood that it was one of the most benignant and dignified of the functions of literature, to correct and purify the public taste, instead of to sanction and confirm it in what is wrong; and for services of this sort, Addison has insured to himself eternal gratitude as well as fame. Because the public may be factious, ferocious, or fanatical, are authors to fan and encourage these odious and degrading propensities? If the taste of the public be such as this writer insinuates it is, we must do him the justice to state that never has it been more effectually consulted; and if the public hold in aversion 'abstract reasonings and calm dispassionate inquiries after truth,' he has taken ample care that his pages should present them with nothing of the sort. His style seems to have been formed on that of the most offensive of the daily prints which disgrace the times, degrade the public mind, and pervert its views and feelings.

Dr. Jarrold, as we understand him, controverts Mr. Malthus's principle itself: Mr. M.'s other adversary does not deny its existence, but takes great pains to shew what Mr. Malthus himself has far more clearly and satisfactorily set forth, namely that it is no new discovery: but, says this writer, even the application of it, as overturning the system of human perfectibility, has been previously made by Mr. Wallace. This doubtless is true; this tendency was known to that gentleman, and had been noticed by others long before his time: but has Mr. Malthus arrogated to himself more of discovery in this matter than really belongs to him? Referring to the great principle which is the basis of his system, he says that

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"The subject has been treated in such a manner by some of the French economists, occasionally by Montesquieu, and among our own writers by Dr. Franklin, Sir James Steuart, Mr. Arthur Young, and Mr. Townshend, as to create a natural surprise that it had not excited more of the public attention.

"Much, however, remained yet to be done. Independently of the comparison between the increase of population and food, which had not perhaps been stated with sufficient force and precision, some of the most curious and interesting parts of the subject had been either wholly omitted or treated very slightly. Though it had been stated distinctly that population must be always kept down to the level of the means of subsistence; yet few inquiries had been made into the various modes by which this level is effected; and the principle had never been sufficiently pursued to its consequences, and those practical inferences drawn from it, which a strict examination of its effects on society appears to suggest."

We will venture to say that a more fair, candid, and correct account of the state of the subject, when it was first assumed by Mr. Malthus, could not be given. Whoever will take the trouble of verifying it will be of our opinion, and will perceive how little that person must adhere to fact, who can insinuate or intimate that Mr. Malthus has only the merit of varying the words of Mr. Wallace. The long quotation from that writer might have been spared, since Mr. Malthus had stated the effect of it.*

From the subsequent passages, the reader will learn something more of the complexion of the present work:

'Mr. Malthus's reputation may, I fear, prove fatal to the poor of this country. His name hangs suspended over their heads, *in terrorem*, like some baleful meteor. It is the shield behind which the archers may take their stand, and gall them at their leisure. He has set them up as a defenceless mark, on which both friends and foes may exercise their malice, or their wantonness as they think proper. He has fairly hunted them down, he has driven them into his toils, he has thrown his net over them, and they remain as a prey to the first invader, either to be sacrificed without mercy at the shrine of cold unfeeling avarice, or to linger out a miserable existence under the hands of ingenious and scientific tormentors.—There is a vulgar saying, "Give a dog a bad name, and hang him." The poor seem to me to be pretty much in this situaiton at present. The poor labour under a natural stigma; they are *naturally* despised. Their interests are at best but coldly and remotely felt by the other classes of society. Mr. Malthus's book has done all that was wanting to increase this indifference and apathy.'

That Mr. Malthus was intentionally the enemy of the poor were a gross calumny, which even this bold accuser will not hazard.

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* See *Essay on Population.* Vol. II. p. 78. 3d Ed.

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The real question is, who is the truest friend of the poor; Mr. Malthus, who recommends it to them to rely on their own thrift and industry rather than look to parochial relief, and who advises them not to be accessary to the introduction of beings into the world for whom they have no means of providing; —or those who flatter their prejudices, and support a system which degrades them by rendering them profligate and improvident? Does this writer consider that there is an industrious class who are compelled to contribute to support the improvident, who frequently suffer far greater hardships than the relieved poor, who are overlooked by him, and at whose expence he is humane? As they respect this valuable class, his notions of humanity lead to incredible hardships.

In the same spirit and style, the author says:

'Mr. Malthus's system must, I am sure, ever remain a stumbling block in the way of true political economy, as innate ideas for a long time confused and perplexed all attempts at philosophy It is an *ignis fatuus*, which can only beguile the thoughtless gazer, and lead him into bogs and quicksands, before he knows where he is The details of his system are, I believe, as confused, contradictory, and uncertain, as the system itself. I shall, however, confine my remarks to the outlines of his plan, and his general principles of reasoning. In these respects, I have no hesitation in saying that his work is the most complete specimen of *illogical*, crude, and contradictory reasoning, that perhaps was ever offered to the notice of the public.' —'Nothing was ever more loose and incoherent than his reasoning. "The latter end of his commonwealth always forgets the beginning." Argument threatens argument, conclusion stands opposed to conclusion. This page is an answer to the following one, and that to the next. There is hardly a single statement in the whole work, in which he seems to have had a distinct idea of his own meaning. The principle itself is neither new, nor does it prove any thing new; least of all does it prove what he meant it to prove. His whole theory is a continued contradiction; it is a nullity in the science of political philosophy.'

In what school this writer has studied political economy, we are at a loss to conjecture: but the loose manner, in which he expresses himself on the many points of it which come under his consideration, satisfies us that his acquaintance with it is indeed very slight.

The impression made on us by Mr. Malthus's performance is certainly very different from that which his anonymous opponent has received from it: but, while we spoke of it with that warmth of commendation which gratitude for so original, ingenious, and learned a work inspired us, we were anxious fairly to appreciate its merits; and we never delivered a judgment which has been more generally ratified and corroborated.

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The honorable situation which its author has been called to fill by the East India company, the tributes recently paid to him in the senate, and the numerous testimonies borne towards him by persons of high authority, furnish very strong proofs of the soundness of our decision. The truth is that in every competent judge the doctrines of Mr. Malthus have found a proselyte; and that no one has appeared their oppugner, who was not deficient in the necessary information, or did not possess a mind that was adapted for investigations of this kind. It is not a little singular, then, that the whole enlightened public should have received strong impressions in favour of Mr. Malthus's positions, while his detractors have been confined to a few persons, notoriously incompetent to form a judgment on the subject: but the fact is indisputable; and should it not have led an unknown and nameless writer to some reserve in language and manner? If an author will set modesty, breeding, and a sense of decency at defiance, be his talents and acquirements what they may, he is an objectionable public instructor: but if he be also found, as in the present instance, to possess qualifications as slender as his manner is disgusting and preposterous, we trust that we shall not be blamed if we dismiss him from our tribunal with slight notice: indeed, the share of it which he engages, he owes to our desire to exhibit his conduct as a warning to all others.

We have observed that this author admits the principle of Mr. Malthus, but he controverts its effects by setting up an error of Mr. Wallace, which Mr. Malthus has refuted. This is the foundation of a great portion of his cavils and objections. We repeat that it cannot be expected of us to animadvert at length on a writer who allows himself the liberty of saying that 'Mr. Malthus's reasoning is of a kind to give one the headache,' 'that he is qualified for the delicate office of conscience-keeper to the rich and great,' and who charges him with 'arguing against the improved cultivation of the earth, and not encouraging an increase of the means of subsistence.' As we do not read these things in Mr. Malthus's performance, it would be useless to expose the loose and puerile declamation which they call forth in the production before us; which, indeed, is wholly taken up in alternately misrepresenting Mr. Malthus, and in refuting those misrepresentations.

It is worthy of this writer to endeavour to magnify the differences between the first and second editions of Mr. Malthus's work; and he is not deterred from thus wasting ink and paper, because it is not less invidious than it is idle and useless. He tells us,

'Before

'Before I proceed, I must stop to observe that I have just been perusing the corrections, additions, &c. to the third and *last* edition of the essay; and I confess I have not much heart to go on. The pen falls from my hand. For to what purpose is it to answer a man, who has answered himself, who has hardly advanced an opinion that he has not retracted, who after all your pains to overturn the extravagant assertions he had brought forward, comes and tells you, Why I have given them up myself; so that you hardly know whether to look upon him in the light of an adversary or an ally.'—

'If Mr. Malthus had chosen to disclaim certain opinions with their consequences, advanced in the first edition, instead of denying that he ever held such opinions, though he may still be detected with the *maner*, he would have saved me the trouble of writing, and himself the disagreeable task of reading, this *rude* attack upon them.'

The assertion that Mr. Malthus answered his second edition in his third is just as true as the statement, that in that edition 'argument threatens argument, and conclusion stands opposed to conclusion; and that one page is an answer to the next, and that to the following one.' Mr. Malthus, like other eminent writers, in consequence of reflecting farther on his subject, finds occasion to correct some opinions, and to extend or qualify others. If he had answered himself, and if he had retracted all that his antagonist disapproved in his work, it was proper that the pen of that antagonist should 'fall from his hand,' and it ought never to have been taken up again.

Nothing can be more destitute of foundation than the foul charge imputed to Mr. Malthus in the latter paragraph of the above extract. In the annals of philosophy, not a name occurs more distinguished by fairness and ingenuousness, and which will be found to be more free from every semblance of literary *charlatanrie*, than that of Malthus. His anonymous opponent is presumptuous enough to think that Mr. M. will peruse the farrago which we have been condemning: but we greatly doubt that he will do much more than barely dip into it, since his time is too valuable to be thrown away on the perusal of a medley of coarse abuse, that can boast of neither logic nor learning. We by no means assert that this writer wants the abilities necessary to render service to letters; we only charge him with having in the present instance displayed a spirit and temper, a style and manner, which are a disgrace to those talents; and with having written on a subject of which his ignorance is egregious.

Jo.

ART. XI. *A Supplement to the Practical Seamanship.* Containing—I. Observations on the present *Construction of Ships*, with an Account of the Four-masted Vessel *Transit*. II. Observations on the *Log and Line*, with a Description of various Instruments for measuring a Ship's way. III. Obervations on *Marine Surveying*. IV. On the Principles and Description of an *Optical Instrument*, applicable to the Mensuration of Distances. V. Mode of applying the *Height of a Vessel's Mast as a Base Line*, to determine the Distances of Objects situated within the Circle of the Sensible Horizon, as viewed from the Mast-Head. VI. Description of an *Eye-Shade*, for the Use of Weak-sighted People, who suffer, as they walk, from the strong Light and Heat which is reflected from a light-coloured Soil: together with an Account of a *Reading-Tube*, in lieu of Spectacles. With an Appendix. By Richard Hall Gower, Author of the "Practical Seamanship;" and formerly in the Service of the East-India Company. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Mawman. 1807.

THE Transit made her first appearance with five masts, and a description of her in that state has been given to the public. As a five-masted vessel, however, she did not continue long; and her history with the reduced number of masts is now related by Mr. Hall Gower, who was the inventor both of the form of the hull and of the method of rigging.

Mr. G.'s object in building the Transit was to produce a swift-sailing vessel; and he remarks that, as length was the leading feature, she became proportionably narrow, and, had the body not been allowed to fall out [to increase in breadth] above the water-line, the vessel would have been too narrow aloft to support her masts. 'The Transit's proportion with respect to length and beam, rather exceeds five beams to her length at the water-mark.' To this form of the hull the rigging was adapted. The length of the vessel, the want of breadth to support tall masts, and the want of stability in a narrow hull to carry large sail, suggested the plan of making up for the smallness of the masts by increasing the number: but, as they were thus unavoidably placed near together, they did not allow room for square sails to work clear of each other; and sails of this form were therefore allotted only to the fore-mast. The *Caravela*, a vessel formerly in use, had in like manner, and probably for similar reasons, square sails only on the fore-mast: but it differed from the Transit in having triangular sails on the after masts.

It appears in Mr. Gower's account, that the trials made of the comparative swiftness of sailing between the Transit and other ships turned out generally in favour of the Transit: but this advantage, we are of opinion, should be attributed rather to the length of the hull than to the fashion of the sails. In

the *Commercial and Agricultural Magazine* for November 1800, was given a description of the Transit, then a ship with five masts; and it is there said, "Mr. Gower had frequently remarked, that when a sail is braced up to the wind, the lee-leech is struck with greater force by the wind than the weather-leech: if, therefore, the quantity of lee-leeches could be augmented, the multiplied pressure of the wind would undoubtedly accelerate a vessel." For this purpose, the writer recommends numerous divisions of sails as producing more lee-leeches; and he remarks that "little more will remain to be done than to learn by experience how far the dividing of the canvas may be carried on to advantage: that is to say, how many masts are admissible in a given length of keel."

Convenience, ease of management, and safety, are reasons frequently urging a preference of a number of small sails to one large sail: but here the question is the effect on the rate of sailing. In the first place, we consider one large sail as susceptible of greater pressure from the wind, than the same area of canvas divided in a number of small sails. Suppose that, instead of a large top-sail or course, a number of small sails were spred to occupy the same space: they would correspond with so many slits in the larger sail, through which the wind would escape, to the diminution of pressure. In looking at the drawing representing the Transit under weigh, the small masts and narrow sails give the idea of boys being set to do the work of men. Allowing equal weight, though more in number, they cannot be supposed to have equal power.—Again; it is very questionable whether an increase of the quantity of lee-leeches would be productive of advantage. The pressure of the wind on the lee-leech of a sail gives an impulse more sideways than forwards; whereas the action of the wind on the weather-part of the sail (and especially of a square sail, a good proportion of which is to windward of the mast,) is an impulse nearly in the direction of the keel.

Mr. Gower enumerates, among the recommendations of small masts and many sails, the easy reduction of sail, and the riding light at anchor: the first is doubtless a very material consideration in merchant vessels, which must be managed with a small number of hands; and the other is of consequence in all vessels. An advantage is likewise mentioned in the shape of the Transit's hull, (independently of the length,) which is worth noticing:

"The Transit's cargoes have been constantly discharged *in the highest degree of perfection*. This good property arises partly from her easy motion at sea, which occasions so little distress to the hull, and partly from the *falling out* of the sides which causes all the leakage.

age-water to drain down the planking of the bottom, into the angle below, without wetting her skin or ceiling, where three feet of water may rest without injury to the cargo. A stranger to the vessel, on going down into her empty hold, and observing the general dryness of her skin, would scarcely believe it possible that the vessel had performed so many voyages as she has done.'

In the next section, Mr. G. has given the description of a log invented by himself for measuring a ship's rate of sailing. We have a double reason for regretting the disappointments of those who take real pains in projects intended for public benefit; and as Mr. Gower has exercised much ingenuity, bestowed much labour, and incurred considerable expence, in the invention of his new log, we are truly concerned that we cannot give it our unqualified approbation. The moving power of his log he describes to be 'a spiral consisting of four vanes or leaves, each vane being a spiral curve;' which revolves round its axis as it is drawn through the water, and is so regulated as to perform an ascertained number of revolutions in passing through a given space, being provided with a register formed of two concentric wheels to mark the number. The spiral is guarded from being affected by the wind or other accidents in drawing it up out of the water, by being inclosed in a tube, and by a davit with a sheave for the hauling-up line to pass through, which keeps it clear of the ship's side.

To this log it must be objected that the machinery is too complicated, and that it requires much more attention in its use than the common log. It likewise occupies more time; being adapted, with a view to greater accuracy, to take the rate of sailing for three minutes at each trial. Another circumstance which creates doubt is, that the log during the trial is kept abreast of the ship: wherefore, though it is recommended to bear the log out from the ship's side with a boat-hook against the towing-line of the log, it can scarcely be supposed to be clear of the disturbed and unsettled water which is occasioned by the ship's passage. In the common log, this is remedied by an allowance of about 20 fathoms of stray-line, that the ship may pass the log, and the displaced water have time to recover its level, before the running out of the line is measured with the glass. On these considerations, we retain our partiality for the long established log; which, if the glass and marks of the line are occasionally examined, we think, will give the rate of sailing with as much accuracy as can be attained by any mode yet discovered.—Mr. G. proposes that the divisions of the knot should be expressed in tenths, 'which would correspond with the decimal division of the difference of latitude and departure-table.' We agree with him that this

would be a more intelligible division of the sea-mile, and 'be more convenient than the unnatural division of knots into fathoms.'

We find also in this *Supplement to Practical Seamanship* some useful hints on sail making: the latter part contains Observations on Marine Surveying, and on the Mensuration of Distances; and the last section gives a description of an Eye-shade, contrived for the use of Weak-sighted People.

Capt. B-y.

ART. XII. *Curiosities of Literature.* Fifth Edition; revised, altered, and enlarged with new Articles. 8vo. 2 vols. pp. 500 in each. 11. 1s. Boards. Murray. 1807.

It must be confessed that the teachers of wisdom and knowlege are sometimes considered as assuming a too formal and too highly elevated attitude, as not stopping to be sufficiently minute, and as exhibiting more maxims than facts, and more assertions than details to support them. The philosopher, indeed, has a strong bias to generalize, and the historian to be decisive in his characters. It would be too familiar in them to hint at anecdote; and it is only by a straying epithet, or a reluctant parenthesis, that curiosity is in some measure gratified. In these circumstances, we are much indebted to such writers as the author of the work before us. For their use, provided that knowlege is increased and character illustrated, the most homely incidents are not too familiar, nor the most trivial circumstances too minute. They lead us into the storehouse, in which we see the raw materials that may be wrought into so many forms and textures; and which should be carefully visited by every man who constructs theories, or builds on facts.

On this account, collections authentically made, which have for their object facts, usages, manners, and characters, have generally in the republic of Letters been deemed valuable; and the compiler of the present volumes has always appeared to us, in this respect, to possess considerable merit. Indeed he is not here a mere collector; he swells his store by careful discrimination and curious research; and he passes shrewd and liberal judgments as he journeys on through his varied materials. Literature and the learned are his chief pursuits, as is implied in the title; and Mr. D'Israeli has, in more works than one, shewn a strong predilection to this subject. He loves the society of the literary, and manifestly wishes to live among them: he takes a deep concern in their affairs; he honours them; he consoles them; and in many parts he is their modest guide.

The

The present edition may almost be said to be a new work with an old title; since it comprehends a great many articles that are altogether novel; such as *Libraries*; *Bibliomania*; *Notices of best Works*; *Scholastic Disquisitions*; *Titles of Books*; *Fame contemned*; *Talmud*; *Rabbinical Stories*; *Literary Fashions*; *The Early Drama*; *Marriage of the Arts*; *Solitude*; *Literary Friendships*; *Abstraction of the Mind*; *Richardson, the Novelist*; *Influence of Names*; *The Jews of York*; *Sovereignty of the Seas*; *Poetical Imitations*, *&c.* Many of the articles also in the former editions are greatly enlarged; such as *Literary Journals*; *Recovery of Manuscripts*; *Mysteries*; *Abridgers*; *Poets*; *Romances*; *Materials of Writing*; *European Manners*: *Literary Composition*; *Abelard and Eloisa*; *The Scuderies*; *Portraits of Authors*; *Metempsychosis*; *Origin of Newspapers*; *Pasquin and Marforio*, &c. &c. Indeed we recognize very few of the articles which are not enlarged and improved.

Extracts from such a work would doubtless amuse our readers, but we shall satisfy ourselves with a very few. To the account of Mademoiselle Scudery formerly given, the ingenious author now adds very amusing anecdotes of her brother.

'GEORGE SCUDERY, her brother, her inferior in genius, had a striking singularity of character:—he was perhaps one of the most complete votaries to the universal divinity of Vanity. With a heated imagination, entirely destitute of judgment, his military character was continually exhibiting itself by that peaceful instrument the pen, so that he exhibits a most amusing contrast of ardent feelings in a cool situation; not liberally endowed with genius, but abounding with its semblance in the fire of excentric gasconade; no man has pourtrayed his own character with a bolder colouring than himself in his numerous prefaces and addresses. Fortunate man! he was surrounded by a thousand self-illusions of the most sublime class; every thing that related to himself had an Homeric grandeur of conception.

'It may amuse to collect these traits of an uncommon character. In an epistle to the Duke of Montmorency, he says, "I will learn to write with my left hand that my right hand may more nobly be devoted to your service;" and alluding to his pen, (plume,) declares "he comes from a family who never used one but to stick it in their hats." When he solicits small favours from the Great, he assures them, "that Princes must not think him importunate, and that his writings are merely inspired by his own individual interest; no! he exclaims, I am studious only of your glory, while I am careless of my own fortune." And indeed, to do him but justice, he acted up to these romantic feelings. After he had published his Epic of Alaric, Christina of Sweden proposed to honor him with a chain of gold of the value of five hundred pounds, provided he would expunge from his Epic the eulogiums he bestowed on the Count of Gardie

whom she had disgraced. With magnanimity, the epical soul of Scudery scorned the bribe, and replied, that "If the chain of gold should be as weighty as that chain mentioned in the history of the Incas, I will never destroy any altar on which I have sacrificed!"

'Proud of his affected nobility and erratic life, he addresses one of his prefaces to the reader thus: "You will pass over lightly any faults in my work, if you reflect that I have employed the greater part of my life in seeing the finest parts of Europe, and that I passed more days in the camp than in the library. I have used more matches to light my arquebuse (a sort of hand gun) than to light my candles. I know better to arrange columns in the field than those on paper; and to square battalions better than to round periods." I have elsewhere shewn how, in his first publication, he began his literary career perfectly in character, by a challenge to his critics.

'He is the author of sixteen plays, chiefly heroic tragedies; children who all bear the features of their father. He first introduced in his "L'Amour Tyrannique," a strict observance of the four-and-twenty hours which he drew from Aristotle; and in a preface by Sarrasin the necessity and advantages of this rule are urged; a regulation which the free spirit of the British muse has not submitted to. In his last tragedy, "Arminius," he extravagantly flings his panegyrics about its fifteen predecessors; but of the present he has the most exalted notion: it is the quintessence of Scudery! An ingenious Critic calls it "The downfall of Mediocrity!" It is amusing to listen to this blazing preface—"At length, reader, nothing remains for me but to mention the great Arminius which I now present to you, and by which I have resolved to close my long and laborious course. It is indeed my master piece! and the most finished work that ever came from my pen; for whether we examine the fable, the manners, the sentiments, or the versification, it is certain that I never performed any thing so just, so great, nor more beautiful; and if my labours could ever deserve a crown, I would claim it for this work!"

'All the acts of this singular personage were like these writings; and he gives a very pompous description of a most unimportant government which he obtained. He was raised to a miserable command near Marseilles, but all the grandeur existed only in our author's heated imagination. Bachaumont and De la Chapelle, two wits of those times, in their playful "Voyage," describe it with humour:

"Mais il faut vous parler du Fort
Qui sans doute est une Merveille;
C'est notre dame de la garde!
Gouvernment commode et beau,
A qui suffit pour tout garde,
Un Suisse avec sa halebarde
Peint sur la porte de chateau!"

'A fort very commodiously guarded; only requiring one centinel, and that centinel a soldier painted on the door!

'In a sonnet on his disgust with the world, he tells us how intimate he has been with Princes: Europe has known him through all her provinces; he ventured every thing in a thousand combats,

"L'on

" L'on me vit obéir, l'on me vit commander,
Et mon poil tout poudreux a blanchi sous les armes;
It est peu de beaux arts ou je ne sois instruit;
En prose et en vers, mon nom fit quelque bruit;
Et par plus d'un chemin je parvins à la gloire!"

' IMITATED.

' Princes were proud my friendship to proclaim,
And Europe gazed, where'er her hero came!
I grasp'd the laurels of heroic strife,
The thousand perils of a soldier's life!
Obedient in the ranks each toilful day!
Though Heroes soon command, they first obey.
'Twas not for me, too long a time to yield!
Born for a Chieftain in the tented field!
Around my plumed helm, my silvery hair
Hung like an honour'd wreath of age and care!
The finer arts have charm'd my studious hours
Vers'd in their mysteries, skilful in their powers;
In verse and prose my equal genius glow'd,
Pursuing glory by no single road!

' Such was the vain George Scudery! whose heart however was warm; poverty could never degrade him; adversity never broke down his magnanimous spirit!'

In the article on *the Origin of Newspapers*, it is observed that the first newspaper in England was printed in the reign of Q. Elizabeth, in order to give information to the public respecting the Spanish Armada; and that they were very generally used during the civil wars of Cromwell:

' In their origin they were devoted to political purposes: but they soon became a public nuisance by serving as receptacles of party malice, and echoing to the farthest ends of the kingdom the insolent voice of Faction. They set the minds of men more at variance, enflamed their tempers to a greater fierceness, and gave a keener edge to the sharpness of civil discord.

' It is to be lamented, that such works will always find writers or rather adventurers adapted to their scurrilous purposes; who neither want at times, either talents, or boldness, or wit, or argument. A vast crowd issued from the press, and are now to be found in a few private collections. They form a race of authors unknown to most readers of these times: the names of some of their chiefs however have just reached us, and in the minor chronicle of domestic literature I rank three notable heroes; Marchamont Needham, Sir John Birkenhead, and Sir Roger L'Estrange.

' Marchamont Needham, the great Patriarch of Newspaper writers, was a man of versatile talents and more versatile politics; a bold adventurer, and most successful, because the most profligate of his tribe; we find an ample account of him in Anthony Wood. From College he came to London, was an usher in Merchant Taylor's

school; then an under clerk in Gray's-Inn; at length studied physic and practised chemistry, and finally he was a Captain, and in the words of honest Anthony, "siding with the rout and scum of the people, he made them weekly sport by railing at all that was noble. In his Intelligence, called Mercurius Brittanicus, wherein his endeavours were to sacrifice the fame of some Lord, or any person of quality, and of the King himself, to the beast with many heads." He soon became popular, and was known under the name of Captain Needham of Gray's-Inn; and whatever he now wrote was deemed oracular. But whether from a slight imprisonment for aspersing Charles I. or some pique with his own party, he requested an audience on his knees with the King, reconciled himself to his Majesty, and shewed himself a violent royalist in his "Mercurius Pragmaticus," and galled the presbyterians with his wit and quips. Some time after when the popular party prevailed, he was still further enlightened, and was got over by President Bradshaw, as easily as by Charles I. Our Mercurial writer became once more a virulent presbyterian, and lashed the Royalists outrageously in his "Mercurius Politicus;" at length on the return of Charles II. being now conscious, says our friend Anthony, that he might be in danger of the halter, once more he is said to have fled into Holland, waiting for an act of oblivion. For money given to an hungry courtier, Needham obtained his pardon under the great seal. He latterly practised as a physician among his party, but lived universally hated by the Royalists, and now only committed harmless treasons with the College of Physicians, on whom he poured all that gall and vinegar which the government had suppressed from flowing through its natural channel.

'The Royalists were not without their Needham in the prompt activity of Sir John Birkenhead. In buffoonery, keenness, and boldness, (having been frequently imprisoned,) he was not inferior, nor was he at times less an adventurer. His Mercurius Aulicus, was devoted to the court then at Oxford. But he was the fertile parent of numerous political pamphlets, which appear to abound in banter, wit, and satire. He had a promptness to seize on every temporary circumstance, and a facility in execution. His "Paul's Church Yard" is a bantering pamphlet, containing fictitious titles of books and acts of Parliaments, reflecting on the mad reformers of these times. One of his poems is entitled "*The Jolt*," being written on the Protector having fallen off his own coach-box; Cromwell had received a present from the German Count Oldenburgh, of six German horses, and attempted to drive them himself in Hyde Park, when this great political Phaeton met the accident of which Sir John Birkenhead was not slow to comprehend the benefit, and hints how unfortunately for the country it turned out! Sir John was during the dominion of Cromwell an author by profession. After various imprisonments for his Majesty's cause, (says the venerable historian of English literature, already quoted,) "he lived by his wits, in helping young gentlemen out at dead lifts in making poems, songs, and epistles on and to their mistresses; as also in translating, and other petite employments." He lived however after the Restoration to become one of the masters of requests,

with

with salaries of 3000l. a year. But he shewed the baseness of his spirit, (says Anthony,) by slighting those who had been his benefactors in his necessities.

'Sir *Roger L'Estrange*, among his rivals, was esteemed as the most perfect model of political writing. The temper of the man was factious and brutal, and the compositions of the author very indifferent. In his multifarious productions and coarse translations, we discover nothing that indicates one amiable sentiment, to compensate for a diction barbarous as the mind of the author. His attempts at wit are clumsy exertions; the heavy hand of a German labouring on a bulky toy. His gravity provokes laughter, but his laughter makes one grave. Queen Mary shewed a due contempt of him after the revolution, by this anagram she made on his name:

"*Roger L'Estrange,*
Lye strange Roger!"

'Such were the three Patriarchs of Newspapers. De Saint Foix, in his curious *Essais historiques sur Paris*, gives the origin of Newspapers to France. Renaudot, a physician at Paris, to amuse his patients was a great collector of news; and he found by these means that he was more sought after than his more learned brethren. But as the seasons were not always sickly, and that he had many hours not occupied by his patients, he reflected, after several years of assiduity given up to this singular employment, that he might turn it to a better account, by giving every week to his patients, who in this case were the public at large, some fugitive sheets which should contain the news of various countries. He obtained a privilege for this purpose in 1632.

'At the Restoration the proceedings of Parliament were interdicted to be published, unless by authority; and the first daily paper after the Revoluion, took the popular title of "The Orange Intelligencer."

'In the reign of Queen *Anne*, there was but one daily paper: the others were weekly. Some attempted to introduce literary subjects, and others topics of a more general speculation. Sir *Richard Steele* formed the plan of his *Tatler*. He designed it to embrace the three provinces, of Manners, of Letters, and of Politics. The public were to be conducted insensibly into so different a track from that to which they had been hitherto accustomed. Hence politics were admitted into his paper. But it remained for the chaster genius of *Addison* to banish this disagreeable topic from his elegant pages. The writer in polite letters felt himself degraded by sinking into the dull narrator of political events. From this time, Newspapers and Periodical Literature became distinct works.'

We must not farther dilate on this publication, though its contents certainly afford seducing matter for extracts, because we have already spoken of it several times, and have always laid it under contribution. See M. R. Vol. vii. N. S. p. 270. Vol. xii. p. 177 and 276. and Vol. xvi. p. 415.

ART. XIII. *Memoir on the National Defence.* By J. F. Birch, Captain in the Royal Engineers. 2d Edition, corrected and considerably enlarged. 8vo. 3s, 6d. Stockdale. 1808.

THOUGH we are far from approving that confident security, or daring rashness, which leads men to spurn the controul of reason, and to despise all precautions as unnecessary, we cannot help thinking that Capt. Birch has taken a most microscopic and distorted prospect of danger to this country from an attack on it by the French; and that he has in consequence endeavoured to magnify both the necessity and the modes of our defence, beyond all truth and due proportion. He first takes it for granted that we are to be assaulted and even insists on it that we must be invaded by Bonaparte with a powerful army for the purposes of conquest and destruction; and that we shall be reduced to the extremity of contending with that army for the safety and preservation of Great Britain, on this island itself. This, however, is an assumption without any direct or collateral proof of either its probability or its possibility: for nothing can be more preposterous than to compare a paltry expedition to Bantry Bay, which failed of succes, and in which the French lost two ships of the line and three frigates, to a serious invasion of this island, with an army sufficiently powerful to undertake the conquest of it. Yet assuming this position, he proceeds in consequence to tell the people of this country that 'he thinks it behoves them to provide for the case of invasion;' and that, for the sake of making this provision, it is necessary to alter our present military establishment, as far at least as it relates to the militia and volunteer systems, and to form extensive, permanent, and entrenched camps in the country, which are to be regarded as 'an essential part of the national force, however it may be constituted.'

With reference to the invasion of this country by Bonaparte, Capt. B. thus expresses his sentiments:

'The probability of his making the attempt must be estimated by the probability of his partial or complete success; by the injury he would do us in either case; by the mischief he himself would incur in case of a failure; by his own character and ruling spirit, and by that of the nation which he governs; by their past enterprises of a similar nature; by their sentiments respecting the invasion of Great Britain; by the means they have of prosecuting it; and those which are likely to accrue from their relative situation to other states. These topics may seem to open a wide field of discussion, fitted to favour the views of those who are inclined to a state of indecision and inactivity. To treat them fully would much exceed the limits of my design. I am sensible that the public opinion is already fixed in regard to some of them, and must confine myself to such general remarks, as may serve perhaps to throw sufficient light upon the subject.'

Here,

Here, then, it appears, he has refrained from entering into a discussion of these topics, in order that he might not 'favour the views of those who are inclined to a state of indecision and inactivity,' and that he might not 'exceed the limits of his design.' Such a discussion of them, however, as would have completely satisfied the public mind respecting them, ought to have been his principal object in this Memoir; for unless he has proved in the most satisfactory manner, and beyond contradiction, the great probability of such an invasion, it would be the height of folly in the people of this country to adopt the measures which he recommends, in order to provide against it. Now, his vague and general remarks relative to it are so far from being applicable to the subject, that they are much better calculated for involving it in darkness, than 'for throwing any light upon it.' He does not even specify those past enterprises of the French, which he says were of a similar nature; for we cannot allow ourselves to suppose that by them he means their equipments of 1795, 1796, 1798, and 1799; which, all things considered, bore no affinity to a serious invasion of England for the purpose of conquest. All these cases, fairly explained, make against his own favourite doctrine; and we must deny that the French were ever engaged in an enterprise that resembled such an invasion of this country, circumstanced as we are at present with regard to them in various respects, and particularly in that of a marine.

On the militia-men and volunteers, Capt. B. thus commences his remarks:

'The militia and volunteer troops, which form at present so considerable a part of the force of the country, will first engage our attention. In regard to militia in general, I cannot do so well as quote the words of Adam Smith, in his chapter of the Wealth of Nations, where he states the services rendered by them in ancient times. Let me however in general premise, that the term militia, as it is used there, and as it is used by Washington and the French writers, does not strictly apply to a militia constituted as ours, though I cannot but think that our own too labours under the greatest disadvantages in the most important respects; in its total want of experience, and in the composition of its officers, which, if it were good, might in a great measure supply the want of experience in the men, but which at present tends only to aggravate that defect. He says, "this distinction being well understood," (that is between a militia which has served several campaigns in the field against the enemy, and one which has not had this advantage,) "the history of all ages, it will be found, bears testimony to the irresistible superiority which a well-regulated standing army has over every sort of militia." Vol. III. p. 59.

He then quotes Adam Smith's opinion of the superiority of a standing army, as exemplified among the Macedonians and the

the Romans; see *Wealth of Nations*, Book V. Chap. I.: but, had he been much acquainted with the best military historians among the antients, he would not have been induced to rely on the support of these passages. With all due deference to Dr. Smith, we must venture to hint that his observations respecting standing armies and militia, as applicable to antient states, are not only founded on error, but are also in some respects inconsistent.

The Romans had no other armies than their legions, which were all formed in exactly the same manner, and were merely a well regulated national militia, composed of themselves and their allies. Each of these bodies, even on first taking the field, was better qualified for military operations than the troops of other states; and certainly much more so than the Gauls of Annibal's army at the battles of Trebia and the Thrasymene Lake: both of which he won by his own skill, by the greater number of his cavalry, and by so working on the foibles of Tiberius and Flaminius, as to turn them to his own advantage, rather than by any superiority in his troops or in their armour. Indeed, after these two battles, he gave to his Africans the arms which he had taken from the Romans, and never again allowed them to use any other. Of the twenty-six military tribunes appointed to the four legions annually enrolled, sixteen were taken from the citizens, who had carried arms in five campaigns; and the others from those who had completed ten. The four captains, or centurions, appointed to each company, were also persons experienced in warfare: a great proportion of the legionary troops were so likewise; and all of them had been previously trained to the use of arms. Even their freshest levies, therefore, were better prepared for warlike operations than any part of our standing army, or of any other perhaps in the world: for every citizen was obliged, before he arrived at the age of forty-six, to serve either ten years in the cavalry or sixteen in the infantry; those only excepted who were rated by the censors below four hundred drachmæ, and were reserved for the service of the sea;—and no citizen was permitted by the laws to sue for any magistracy before he had served ten campaigns.

As to the Roman army which Annibal engaged and almost destroyed at the battle of Cannæ, it was not only the most numerous but perhaps the finest that Rome ever sent into the field. It was chiefly composed of troops who had served several campaigns, had therefore frequently encountered their enemies, knew how they were armed, were well acquainted with their manner of fighting, and, during the course of two whole years previous to that action, had daily engaged them

with

with equal forces in partial but sharp combats, from which they generally returned successful. As troops, then, they were at least fully equal to their enemies, and on the whole they were better armed; for, though Annibal had armed the Africans after the Roman manner, the Gauls and Spaniards wore the same kind of buckler, which was inferior to that of the Romans; while the Gallic sword, instead of being calculated for pushing as well as striking, was fit only for making a falling stroke, and at a certain distance. The consul Æmilius, who had not long before rendered essential services to his country by his brave and skilful management of the war against the Illyrians, harangued the legions before the engagement; telling them that it was highly improbable, or rather impossible, for them, who had almost daily returned with success for the space of two years from little combats with the enemy against equal forces, to fail with more than double numbers of obtaining the victory in a general battle; and that, as all circumstances afforded the stongest assurances of their being victorious, nothing was wanting but that they themselves should in earnest resolve to conquer. After having observed that it was unnecessary to enlarge much to them on that topic, in order to shew in what contempt he held the mercenary troops, who chiefly composed the only standing armies that existed among the antients, and an army of allies, whose interests are not intimately interwoven with and inseparable from those of the people with whom they are in alliance, he made use of the following words: "Were I speaking indeed to mercenary soldiers, or to an army of allies engaged in the defence of some neighbouring state, this kind of exhortation might perhaps be necessary: for the worst that can befall such troops is the danger to which they are exposed during the time of action, since they have scarcely any thing either to apprehend or to hope from the issue of it."

Annibal's victories, therefore, were not in any respect owing to the superiority of his troops over those of the Romans, but chiefly to his own wonderful dexterity and skill, and partly to his advantage in cavalry: for the Gauls, who composed a great proportion of his army, were much inferior to the legionary troops in discipline and warlike preparation, were much worse armed, were actuated solely by revenge and a thirst of booty, were fickle and unsteady, impatient of hardship and fatigue, and so treacherous that Annibal found it necessary to disguise himself sometimes daily to avoid being assassinated by them. That his own extraordinary abilities were the principal cause of his success is evident from these words of Polybius:

"With regard to the battles that were fought by Annibal, and the victories which he obtained over the Romans, we need not on this occasion enter into a long discussion of them: for it was not his arms nor his order of battle which rendered that General superior to the Romans, but his dexterity alone, and his admirable skill. In the accounts given by us of those engagements, we have very clearly shewn that this was the cause of his success; and the remark is still more strongly confirmed, in the first place, by the final issue of the war: for as soon as the Romans had obtained a General, whose ability was equal to that of Annibal, they immediately became the conquerors. Add to this, that Annibal himself rejected the armour which he first had used; and having furnished the African troops with arms that were taken from the Romans in the first battle, he afterwards used no other." Book XVII. Chap. II.

This passage sufficiently shews that the reason assigned by Adam Smith for Annibal's successes against the Romans, on the ground that the troops of the latter were militia opposed to standing armies, is erroneous, and contradictory to historical facts; and his subsequent observation respecting the standing army, which Annibal left with his brother Asdrubal, when he intrusted him with the government of Spain, is equally mistaken. That army did not enable Asdrubal, with all his abilities, experience, and skill in war, to "expel the Romans almost entirely from that country." Instead of expelling them, he was himself expelled from it: for after having been worsted by them both at sea and on land, and defeated by Publius Scipio in a general engagement, he collected together the remains of his army, and passed the Pyrenæan mountains in order to join his brother in Italy: but on entering that country, he was intercepted by the consuls Livius and Claudius, and forced to engage them also in a general battle, in which he fell, displaying the utmost courage and conduct. That great commander, as long as any hope remained of his performing actions not unworthy of his former glory, paid all due attention to his own safety: but, when fortune had deprived him of every prospect, and reduced him to the last desperate extremity, he determined either to conquer or to die like one of the sons of Amilcar Barcas.

Dr. Smith's remark also, that, "the African militia composed the greater part of the troops of Annibal at the battle of Zama," is not founded in truth. The Carthaginians and subject-Africans together formed only his second line; and all of them, a few excepted, fell nobly fighting in the field of battle. It was not owing to them that Annibal was defeated in that engagement, but to the circumstance of Scipio having left proper intervals in his order of battle through which the elephants might pass, and to his great superiority in cavalry. After Annibal's

nibal's third line, which was composed of the troops that he had brought with him from Italy, and was formed at the distance of a stadium or furlong from the second, came to be engaged, Polybius tells us that, "as the numbers were nearly equal, as the sentiments, the courage, and the arms on both sides were the same, the battle remained for a long time doubtful; and so obstinate was the contention, that the men all fell in the place in which they fought: but Lælius and Masinissa, returning from the pursuit of the routed cavalry, arrived *most providentially* at the very moment when their assistance was chiefly wanted, and attacked the rear of Annibal." It was this circumstance that chiefly decided that action, which gave to the Romans the sovereignty of the world.

It is curious to observe that Dr. Smith in one sentence calls the Roman legions *militia*, and in another *standing armies*. They had no bodies of troops that bore the smallest resemblance to standing or mercenary armies, till after they had lost their liberty; and it was by their national militia, or legionary troops, that they conquered the world in a short period after they first visited the adjoining island of Sicily, and sent assistance to the Mamertines. A militia so constituted as theirs was must be allowed to have been much more efficient than any standing army, for the purposes both of defence and conquest, as well as infinitely better calculated for the preservation of liberty; and were ours similarly organized, we might very properly dispense with our standing army, and all its enormously expensive appendages. It was by her standing army, though chiefly composed of Africans, that the Carthaginians, after the first Punic war, were brought to the brink of destruction, from which they were with difficulty saved by the transcendent abilities of Amilcar. The whole of antient history, indeed, militates against the positions laid down in the passage which Captain Birch quotes from Adam Smith; and we have examined it the more particularly, because it has the sanction of that celebrated writer's name, and on it therefore Captain B. has laid great stress in his condemnation of our militia and volunteer systems: which, though they certainly stand in need of alteration and improvement, we cannot help regarding as the two principal checks that exist in this country, at present, against the conversion of its government into a military despotism.

The first cause which the present author assigns for the final success of our revolted American colonies is the extent of the country which they had to defend; a position than which nothing can be more extraordinary, since the power of resistance in any country must, *cæteris paribus*, be in the inverse ratio of the space occupied by those who are employed in its defence.

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We cannot follow minutely this advocate for fortified positions through all his extraordinary dogmas, tenets, and assertions; such as that we ought not to count on our navy defending our army, but on our army defending our navy, in case of an attack; that the Irish militia should not be suffered to remain in Ireland; that the present system of militia should be abolished, by changing them into regulars, and giving them officers from the line; that the volunteer corps (which seem to excite much uneasiness) are the worst species of militia; that Agricola defeated Galgacus on the Grampian hills, though they did not engage on them, but only near the foot of them, &c. &c. &c. We must, however, exhibit one or two specimens both of the author's style and of his knowlege in the science of national defence:

'I shall propose a mode or plan of construction for accomplishing in a very short time that which we have in view. I think that our fortifications should be similar to intrenched camps, on ground naturally strong, situated on a river, or covering a great commercial or maritime town, which supposes their back to the sea, which in a great measure fortifies naturally one half of them, and enables them to receive supplies from shipping (some of these natural positions have been observed to be stronger than any fortresses); that they should be strengthened or fortified by means of detached, independent, permanent works or forts in the best situations that could be found for them, each requiring a particular attack to reduce it; and that they should flank and be connected by a deep intrenchment of earth, which might be levelled when the army wished to go and combat the enemy, having besides some works in an advanced line; those in the second line to be opposite the interval of those in the first line; those of the first order to be able to cover from 30 to 50,000 men, and those of the second a lesser number. It is a similar principle on which Alexandria and Cairo were fortified by the French, each of which could have covered any number of men, and which enabled their corps there to exact such favourable terms of capitulation; which sufficiently manifested what an excellent defence they might have made, though unsupported by the people of the country, and without any communication with the sea.'

What does Capt. B. wish us to understand by the *back of fortifications?* or by asserting that our *fortifications* '*should be fortified* by means of detached, independent, permanent works or forts in the best situations that could be found for them?' and that 'they should *flank* (one another, or what?) and be connected by a deep intrenchment of earth'?—Again:

'The necessity of fortified positions in Britain, I am convinced, cannot admit of being questioned, and I am equally certain they must be formed on the principle I have proposed, or on some close modification of it. The number and situation of them will admit of much discussion, and it is with extreme diffidence I submit my opinions on this part of the subject, particularly as I have scarce any

any local knowledge of South Britain, which of course has the first claim to our attention. In the first instance let us consider that part of it that lies to the south of the Mersey and Humber, which may be regarded as the heart of Britain. The four great commercial cities of London, Hull, Liverpool, and Bristol are situated at the four angles of it on inlets of the sea, and the lines that may be supposed to join these points form a rectangle, each of which may be regarded as the base of a military position against the several quarters from which the enemy may come. Opposite to the middle of each of these sides, or at least to three of them, are places which either are at present fortified or seem particularly to require to be so; namely in the south, Portsmouth, Gosport, the island of Portsea, and the Isle of Wight, all which may be regarded as one position, which cannot possibly be too much secured; on the east, Yarmouth, which is become so essential on account of the North sea squadrons; on the north an intermediate point to connect England with Scotland, perhaps on the Tees, which appears from the map to be navigable as far as Bernard Castle; and on the west perhaps some point to connect with Ireland. It is generally allowed also that a fortified position is necessary in the centre of the country. These situations then might be found perhaps* to answer the several purposes required from them as fortified positions, the substance of which is to afford different lines of operation to an army, or corps of an army, in the front, flanks, or rear of an enemy, in whatever direction he may present himself or advance. For if he attached himself to the place or places on the coast, or that on the north, then other places would be in his rear; and if he further advanced into the country, then the places on the coast would be in his rear; and if he further advanced, there would be places in his front, flank, and rear. But the great advantage in defensive war, and the means of prosecuting it offensively, consist in having such positions as afford several lines of operation to cross, and take in front and reverse every possible line of operation of the enemy, and in the shortness of these lines; and a great advantage of positions in themselves is to be capable of receiving the confluence of all the resources of the country from as large a circle as possible, to be able to extend their influence as widely, and to be incapable of being easily embraced or invested. Now the positions on the coast evidently want the latter advantages, and on the contrary might under some circumstances be very improper for troops to act and retire upon, as they might prove to be a cul de sac for them; though on other accounts it seems essential to place them in security, in consideration of their wealth and population, and their intimate connection or identity with the sources of our military and maritime power, and more particularly that we may be able to succour and be succoured by the latter. In addition therefore to the maritime places, other places in the interior, I imagine, should be fortified, to answer altogether the

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' * Being unacquainted with the ground about Hull, Liverpool, and Bristol, I cannot pretend to assert that they admit of being fortified.'

several purposes to be expected from them. Supposing therefore that one were formed between each of the first positions mentioned, of London, Hull, Liverpool, and Bristol, they would then with that in the centre of the kingdom, form three successive lines of defence: which may be considered as corresponding to the sides, and to the two lines drawn through the centre, and parallel to them, of the rectangular figure before mentioned (independent of the places which subtend the sides on the coast, two of which are Portsmouth and Yarmouth), and they would also correspond, I think, to the natural lines of defence of the country, which should be identified with the artificial ones, as the natural strength of each particular situation and position should be reinforced by the artificial works. The position on the south side would fall upon the Isis, about Oxford or Abingdon; that on the east on the Nen, between Northampton and Peterborough, or on the Ouse, about Huntingdon; that in the centre of the kingdom, about Rugby or Warwick, on the Avon; that in the north should be placed so as to command the Trent; and that in the west upon the Severn. They would thus all support the principal natural lines of defence of the country, which are the principal rivers. A more advantageous position however than Bristol might, I think, be found higher up the Severn, which should be upon both banks of that river, and form, with that in the centre of the kingdom on the Avon, and that in the east on the Nen, a chain of positions to correspond with a most remarkable natural division of the country, on which the Romans established their first chain of forts under P. Ostorius Scapula.'

Here Capt. Birch begins with declaring that he has scarcely any local knowlege of South Britain, and yet he proceeds to dictate chains of fortified positions for its defence.

When he says, 'the lines that may be supposed to join these points form a rectangle, each of which may be regarded as the base of a military position against the several quarters from which the enemy may come,'—he does not seem to be aware that right lines joining London and Hull, Hull and Liverpool, Liverpool and Bristol, and Bristol and London, would not form a rectangle, but a trapezium, or quadrangular figure, of which the opposite sides are neither equal nor parallel; nor to be sensible that it is utterly impossible for right lines, supposed to be drawn through a central point within such a figure, to be parallel respectively to its opposite sides. Were two of the opposite sides of this figure to be bisected, and a right line be drawn joining the points of bisection, it would not be parallel to either of the other two sides. Moreover, though Hull, Liverpool, and Bristol are three of the author's four grand points in his proposed lines of fortified positions, he acknowleges that he is unacquainted with the ground about them, and does not know whether they are capable of being fortified or not.

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Independently of this quadrangular or trapezoidal figure, which the author uniformly calls a rectangle, and the sides of which taken together with the lines drawn through the central point within it exceed seven hundred and fifty miles in extent, talks of sides along the coast: but of what figure they are sides he does not mention. If to these be added his proposed lines from Edinburgh to Stirling, from Stirling to Perth, and from Perth to Aberdeen, we shall have an aggregate of lines of fortified positions equal at least to eleven hundred miles. Now if these lines are to be secured by extensive works which mutually protect one another, (and if they be not, they will be liable to be penetrated without difficulty every where, and the troops placed in the fortified positions to be taken in detail,) the whole male population of the island capable of bearing arms, together with *all the females* in it, who might be sufficiently stout and robust for such duty, would not suffice for properly occupying them, and for furnishing only one relief.

Capt. B.'s proposed method of fortifying his positions sets every received principle of engineering at defiance. The bastioned system with flanks is to be laid aside; and a construction in straight lines, without any regard to flanking defences, is to be made of the projected works, which are to be defended by a reverse fire from case-mates on the counterscarp of the ditch. The glacis of each, too, is to be countermined, and these case-mates are to serve as places of arms to the countermines. The new works round the Common and the Dock-Yard at Portsmouth have casemated-galleries in the counterscarp: but government has not yet proceeded so far as to make countermines in their glacis, although they have already cost ten times the amount of the original estimate of the expence of erecting them. Captain Birch does not appear to be aware that, if his proposed lines of fortified positions are to form three successive lines of defence against the enemy, on whatever side he may make his attack, each work ought to be constructed exactly in the same manner throughout its whole *enceinte*; nor to know that, if the works are to be without flanks, and to be defended by a reverse fire from the counterscarp, it would be much better to make both them and their ditches perfectly circular than in right lines; because such a construction would give a much greater area within the same extent of rampart, and also distribute the fire from the inside of them much more regularly and equally. To shew that his schemes are visionary and impracticable, it is only necessary to mention that his projected line of fortified positions is in point of extent to the line of fortresses which secured the

frontier of France under the monarchy on the sides of Switzerland, Germany, and Flanders, in the ratio of at least 110 to 47: for from Basil to Landau along Alsace, the distance is about 130 miles; from Landau to Sedan on the Moselle along the electorate of Treves, the dutchies of Deux Ponts, Luxemburg, and Limberg, about 190; and from Sedan down the Meuse to Charlemont in French Flanders, and thence to Dunkirk, about 150; in all about 470 miles; whereas, as we have already shewn, the lines of Capt. B. extend over 1100 miles.

As to the author's chimerical project for protecting London by means of fortifications and inundations, how long could the inhabitants of our metropolis subsist if an enemy's army were to occupy the avenues to it, and to cut off its supplies? In one week they would be reduced to the necessity of either surrendering, or of eating their horses, dogs, and cats, or perhaps one another.

Even Captain Birch's phraseology serves to shew that he is unacquainted with military science. He talks of *narrow* instead of *acute* angles; of the *flanks of hills*, as if conical bodies had flanks; of sides *subtended* by places; of faces *flanked by a reverse fire*, as if a flanking fire was a reverse one; of *a close modification of a principle of construction*, &c. &c.

Captain B.'s observations respecting our cavalry and horse-artillery have no tendency to prove that this country is not naturally strong, but rather shew that both establishments are in a great measure useless; and that therefore nine-tenths of the enormous expence of supporting them might be saved to the nation, without any real diminution of its defence.

To the second edition, the author has subjoined an appendix, which is full of mis-statement, particularly respecting the late ingenious General Lloyd: who both thought and wrote like an engineer and a soldier, and manifested an illumination of mind on every subject which he discussed. Captain Birch roundly declares that 'Lloyd's book was evidently written against his better judgment, to obtain his pardon and a pension.' This assertion, however, is not founded on fact; since the General had made his peace here, and had obtained a pension on the Chelsea establishment, some years before his "*Political and Military Rhapsody*" was printed, which first made its appearance at the critical moment when the combined fleets of France and Spain rode triumphant in the channel, in 1779; and that he had weighed the subject with the most mature deliberation, and thoroughly digested his ideas respecting it, must be manifest from this circumstance, that the *Rhapsody* was published just 39 years after he had first taken the

the invasion of this country into his consideration, and sketched out a plan of it:—which plan was, however, abandoned by the French ministry, in consequence of a report made by him after he had particularly and minutely examined the coast of England.

Capt. B. also says that General Lloyd supposes the enemy to land in Devonshire. He does not, however, confine the landing exclusively to that county, but shews that Plymouth and Portsmouth are the only places along the whole coast that could answer an enemy's purpose; who could not promise to himself success if he were to land to the northward of Portsmouth, because he could not in that case have any secure roadstead or harbour for his shipping, nor any safe place of arms for a dépôt.

The author moreover asserts that Gen. L. 'prescribes that an invader should always choose as short a line of operation as possible, and in order to that end debark near the capital.' Not such, however, but the following are the General's words on that subject: "When a *coup de main* only is intended, you must debark as near the object you have in view as possible, because the success depends on secresy and surprize: but when you propose to wage war in a country, you are to land your troops at a distance, that you may have time to bring your stores on shore, fortify a camp, take some capital position, and then proceed gradually towards the point you have in view."

Captain B. next ascribes to General Lloyd the remark, "that were the enemy to land an army in England, the enterprize might be decisive:" but all the observations of that able writer on the subject are inconsistent with this assertion: for he never once supposes a serious invasion of this country to be practicable, while we are superior or even nearly equal to our enemies at sea. He therefore earnestly recommends it to our rulers to direct their attention particularly to our naval establishments; and he points out in strong terms the inutility, while we maintain a pre-eminence afloat, of augmenting our army for the purposes of national defence,—advising the conversion of a very considerable part of it into a marine force. In page 51 of his *Rhapsody*, he observes: "from what we have said, it seems evident, that *no invasion can take place*, until our fleet entirely driven out of the sea is forced to hide itself for a *considerable time* in some harbour; and that such an invasion cannot be prosecuted with any probability of success, unless the enemy is master of Plymouth or Portsmouth."—At page 64 he remarks that "it is needless for him to prosecute this description any further, because he is persuaded that no

army, however numerous, will ever be able to penetrate forty miles into the country, if proper methods be taken to oppose it, and if we know how to avail ourselves of the numberless resources which may be drawn from the face of the country." —In his *Military History*, we find these words: "whoever weighs what we have said will be convinced that the ideas and fears of a (French) invasion were vain and absurd." (See Extracts, p. 100.) He also uses these remarkable expressions: "When I consider this subject in a military light only, I wish almost, that the enemy had made such an attempt; because once for all they would have seen the absurdity and danger of it, and we should for ever have been cured of our fears:" p. 104.

In conclusion, it is evident that we have not been induced by the merits or the weight of this memoir to devote to it so much of our time and attention: but we have reckoned it a serious public duty, on a topic of such moment, to point out not only the erroneous but the dangerous tendency of the opinions here delivered; as calculated both for facilitating the enemy's attempts to subdue the country, and for reconciling the minds of the people to measures which, if adopted, would unquestionably introduce into it an absolute military domination.

Glen.

ART XIV. *Scotch Reform*; Considered with Reference to the Plan proposed in the late Parliament, for the Regulation of the Courts, and the Administration of Justice, in Scotland; with Illustrations from *English Non-Reform*: in the Course of which, divers Imperfections, Abuses, and Corruptions, in the Administration of Justice, with their Causes, are now for the first Time brought to Light. In a Series of Letters addressed to the Right Hon. Lord Grenville, &c. &c. With Tables, in which the principal Causes of factitious Complication, Delay, Vexation, and Expence, are distinguished from such as are natural and unavoidable. By Jeremy Bentham, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 100. 6s. sewed. Ridgway. 1808.

IT is much to be regretted that a writer so ingenious, original, and profound as Mr. Bentham should in all his compositions so entirely neglect exterior, and be so little solicitous that his manner should correspond with his matter. If in the present instance due pains of this kind had been taken, a tract which, we fear, will not now have to boast of many readers would have excited general notice; and the attention of the public would have been drawn to points of high interest and importance. The merit of this pamphlet,

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as referable to the measure which it examines and criticises, is indeed slight, since from its commencement to its close this object is but little kept in view: but it has claims which rest on general observations, introduced in the course of it without much connection, that display the same spirit of bold inquiry, the same skill and ability in analyzing moral subjects, and the same habit of deep thinking, which are to be traced in all the performances of Mr. Bentham.

In the first letter, the author arraigns those proceedings which take place in our courts of law previously to trial, and contrasts them with others that would occur under a plan which he proposes, and the outline of which he has sketched. To this plan he gives the denomination of *Natural Procedure*; while he assigns the appellation of *Technical Procedure* to our established system.

Under this scheme of *Natural Procedure*, all suits in the first instance are to be submitted to the decision of a single judge; the parties are personally to be heard and confronted; the pleadings are to be simple, and according to the truth; *vivâ voce* evidence, when attainable, is to be exclusively received; appearance, and the production of things which it may be necessary to have in Court at the trial, are to be effectually conforced; tribunals are to be local; a due number of them is to be set up throughout the empire; and their jurisdiction is to have geographical limits only. The author's courts of natural procedure are represented by himself as nothing more than courts of conscience, with powers similar to our present superior tribunals. In the parallel which he runs between the proposed and the established system, we meet with hints and suggestions which are in his best manner, and which well deserve the attention of legislators: but, if we may take the liberty of delivering an opinion on the respective claims of these two plans, we have no hesitation in declaring that, objectionable as we acknowlege our present system to be in many respects, we should deprecate its exchange for that of Mr. B. Some of the vices which he imputes to these proceedings are properly to be laid to the charge of time; while others are of a nature from which no system can be wholly free. Will the ingenious author guarantee his natural procedure against the effects of time; and will he pretend that under it an unprincipled litigant shall not be able to vex and harass a *bonâ fide* suitor? Of any such empiricism we fully acquit him.—Had these considerations, however, been present in his mind, and allowed to have their due weight, we apprehend that he would have somewhat qualified his censure of

our institutions, and have expressed himself in terms less harsh of those who act under them.

In his second letter, Mr. Bentham argues against a multiplicity of judges, and states his reasons for preferring those tribunals at which justice is administered by a single judge:—but, while the Court decides on facts as well as law, we shall, until better instructed, continue to think that the suitor is more secure before a tribunal which is filled by a number of judges, than before one in which a single individual decides. The Court created by the Grenville Act, which Mr. Bentham so properly eulogizes, is an authority directly in opposition to his doctrine on this point. The proposed division of the Court of Sessions into sections engages his approbation, and he only complains of the arrangement as not going far enough. He sets no high value on the competition of which the measure boasted; and according to his idea, competition, in order to have any value, should be not between Court and Court similarly constituted, but between system and system: by the side of the present tribunals, he would have those of *natural procedure* set up; and with nothing short of a competition of this kind will he be satisfied.

The usage of having so great a number of judges in the Court of Sessions is thus explained by Mr. B.:

'At its institution, anno 1532, why was the court so crowded as we see it?—because France was the model for every thing, and in France judicature was thus crowded. In France how came judicature to be thus crowded? Because the sale of the seats was an object of finance. From this sinister interest came the custom: from the custom, the prejudice: and that prejudice so strong, that it became a sort of axiom,—that if in any instance the ends of judicature failed of being fulfilled, it was for want of a sufficiently great multitude of Judges.'

In letter III. Mr. Bentham inveighs with great warmth and force against the departure from truth allowed in pleading, in both the English and Scotch Courts: but on this liberty, the proposed reform sets no new nor effectual restraint; while the author, if we rightly comprehend him, would have the allegations on both sides verified on oath, or in some other way preferred under a sanction equally binding.

On the proposed plan of reform, "the defender is required, in his defence, distinctly to admit or deny all relevant facts alleged in the summons or other writ by which the cause is brought into Court;" and it appears that a recommendation of this sort, for it amounts to nothing more, is not new in the law of Scotland. Mr. Bentham, addressing the noble patron of the plan, says;

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'In rummaging among the Acts of Sederunt, I found a part of one, and of so recent a date as 11th August 1787, in these terms:—"When the Defendant receives the Summons, he shall therewith return, upon a separate paper, his whole *Defences*, both dilatory and peremptory, stating the facts he is to insist upon, and *explicitly admitting or denying* the several facts set forth in the Pursuer's libel."

'To be sure the tenor is not precisely the same: Anno 1787, *explicitly*; Anno 1806, *distinctly*:—but whether in *purport*, there be any material variance, your Lordship will judge.

'Now then, my Lord, this law of the Scotch Judges, is it acted upon or not? If acted upon, your Lordship sees what has come of it: if not acted upon, but neglected, what security does the Resolution give—what security is it in the power of the learned Author to give—that the neglect will not continue?'

We insert the passages that follow, not merely on account of the sentiments which they contain, but as specimens of the style, spirit, and manner of the present publication:

'All this while, if by *Pleadings* are to be understood *demand*, with *particulars* and *grounds* of demand, on one side—*admissions* or *defences*, with *grounds* of defence on the other—think not, my Lord, that if it depended upon me, *written* Pleadings would be no more. On the contrary, *printing*, where properly managed, being a cheaper mode of *writing*, great and constant use would be made of them: though, unfortunately for their reception, upon such terms as would be of little use to Pleaders.'—

'Yes, my Lord: speak the word, and *a body of law with a system of Pleading raised upon it*, you shall have. Comyns, title *Pleader*, shall be taken into the Laboratory. It shall be thrown into the roasting furnace; the arsenic, 60 per cent. will fly off in fume:—it shall be consigned to the cupel; the lead, 30 per cent. will exude out, and repose for everlasting in the powder of dead men's bones. The golden button, 10 per cent. shall be gathered up, my Lord, and made the most of.

'On the present occasion, with the benefit of second thoughts, I spare your Lordship's indulgence no light load, which, under a first impulse, I had destined for it, about *Issues*, *general* and *special*, *Summonses* in the Scotch style with *libels* in the belly of them, and Scotch *Petitions*, and English *Declarations* and *Pleas*, and English *Assumpsit*, *Trover*, and *Ejectment*, and Scotch *Ranking* and *Sale*: and the existence in Scotland of the equivalent of English *Declarations*, and the non-existence of the equivalent of English *Pleas*:—and the original old English Castle of Chicane, and the new wing *added* to it in Lord Mansfield's time, (for in business *addition* is as welcome as *subtraction* is invidious) to wit, under the name of "*Particulars*," and so forth. How fortunate is it, for one of us at least, that the discovered nihility of this part of the learned Improver's basis saves me from the task of seeking to load it with any such superstructure!'

Mr. Bentham's fourth and concluding letter is of great interest, and displays much of that ability and acuteness by

which he stands distinguished. He here considers that part of the plan which was to have introduced trial by Jury into Scotland, and from which he takes occasion to examine generally this mode of judicial decision. This institution, so universally in our own country the object of reverence and encomium, is coldly hailed, and even slightly treated by this reforming philosopher; if it be not degraded in rank and consideration, its active functions are greatly circumscribed, and its importance diminished; it is never to interpose in suits in the first instance, at least in civil suits; and it is only to be introduced as a tribunal of appeal from the decision of the single judge. On the author's plan, its province is less to decide, than to check and rectify misdecision. This, like all other human institutions, has limits to its utility, and labours under imperfections; and in the eye of impartial reason, we grant, it is not that absolutely perfect thing which it has been represented to be by blind and indiscriminate admirers: but that it has been in this country productive of inestimable benefits, and that it has formed the principal bulwark of our invaluable rights and privileges as subjects of a free state, are notions which the ingenuity and authority of Mr. Bentham cannot induce us hastily to discard. If in some cases it renders inadequate justice, and if in particular instances the individual derives from it imperfect redress, we cannot shut our eyes against its salutary and benignant operation as it respects the community at large. Legal proceedings, we conceive, are to be regarded in a two-fold view,—as they affect the individual, and as they affect the commonwealth;—as they enable the former to assert and defend his rights with more or less trouble, delay, and expence; and as they cherish, invigorate, and support public liberty. This last aspect of jurisprudence seems to have been very much overlooked in the letters before us. The rapid summary and economical procedures, which so decidedly engage the author's preference, must leave much to the conscience and discretion of the judge:—but we perceive that we have unwittingly glided into a doctrine, against which a violent anathema is thundered by the author in the present performance;—a doctrine which he is pleased to denominate

'A hack epigram, made by Montesquieu, and retailed by Blackstone, in which the idea of incompatibility as between *justice* and *liberty* is insinuated: a piece of sophistry which, whether in design or no, may be set down as being, in tendency, one of the most mischievous that wit was ever employed in varnishing; and which, before I close this address, I feel myself strongly tempted to strip of its varnish, that lawyers in general, and especially lawyers to whose authority height gives weight, may, by shame, and fear of public indignation, find themselves estopped from using it.'

This

This promise, or rather threat, we do not observe that Mr. B. has fullfilled in the present tract: but he may intend it for the subsequent letters; and we shall be gratified to find it carried into execution. Yet of this sophistry, as far as it belongs to Montesquieu, we must own ourselves to be to this moment the dupes; and we are not prepared to charge Blackstone with any other fault than that of having applied it much too largely. Mr. Bentham will not expect that language betraying intemperate warmth, and mere assertions however confidently made, or however respectable the quarter from which they proceed, should work conviction on our minds.

Differing as we do from the author in our general views of this important subject, we still have great pleasure in admitting that he has explored it with a penetrating and searching eye; never, to our knowlege, has it been so thoroughly probed and examined; and never have the defects which are inherent in it, and the inconveniences which are incidental to it, been more fully exposed. We unfeignedly respect Mr. Bentham's talents for investigations of this nature; and truly glad shall we be to see this favourite institution, highly as it is revered by us, submitted to his most rigorous analysis, and its proper functions and real utility determined and ascertained. We hope that he will fulfil the promise which the subsequent passage holds out:

'In some other place, I propose to myself to submit to your Lordship some sort of *apperçu* of the *price* paid—paid by the people—paid in the several shapes of *delay*, *expence*, and *denial of justice*, not to speak of *misdecision*—for the benefit of Jury trial, at its present *stage*, grafted as at present on the *technical* system; and for the services rendered by learned Lords and Gentlemen—to some body doubtless, but to whom I can not find, except to learned Lords and Gentlemen—by the upholding of that, together with the other branches:—as likewise what are *not*, as well as what *are*, the considerations, by which this popular branch of the *technical* mode of procedure has never ceased to command their eulogy, any more than the *natural* mode their silence.'

If we cannot afford Mr. B. any hopes of our becoming proselytes to his doctrine, we pledge ourselves to give it an impartial examination. At present, we are far indeed from thinking that a Court of Conscience is a fit model on which to form all the tribunals of the country. Were we called to the most thorough investigation of these great subjects, or were we less impressed with a maxim of Mr. Bentham, which the ingenious editor of his last work (M. Dumont) has thus neatly worded, *que de choses dans une loi*, we should perhaps concede to Mr. B. that the jurisdiction of his favourite court should be materially less restrained;

restrained; or at least that the suitor should have the option of using it to a much larger extent than at present. We own that it is with some astonishment, that we discover a person so distinguished by a capacity for close investigation and deep reflection as Mr. Bentham, holding up the dispatch of the Courts of Conscience as a matter of reproach to the superior tribunals of the country; as well, we conceive, may a skilful optician be censured, because an inferior artist prepares a thousand pairs of spectacles, while the other is constructing a first-rate telescope. This predilection, which appears to us to be so little worthy of the author, discovered itself in his admirable work on Legislation, and we duly adverted to and protested against it. Highly important as we allow practical legislation to be, still it may, like the trial by jury, be over-rated, and this we conceive to have been done by Mr. Bentham. He makes it too much a panacea for all human ills; while it appears to us that it is only secondary, and auxiliary to education and to efficient systems of moral and religious instruction. Perfect these, and we shall contract the province of the legislator, and reduce the business of tribunals. Litigation, it appears to us, is not to be confounded with the ordinary pursuits of life,—it is not within the regular course of human affairs,—but is to be regarded as an aberration from them, into which individuals are occasionally thrown. It ever has been an evil, and no legislative enactments can make it cease to be such: but every consideration requires that it should be rendered the least possibly prejudicial to the fair suitor.

We think that the reader, who should take his impressions of both the theory and the practice of our jurisprudence from the present letters, would regard them as being little short of a pure evil: such may not have been Mr. Bentham's intention: but we are speaking of the fact. We are as little disposed as he is to blind ourselves against the defects of the one or the other: but so far are we from concurring in the view of them which is here given, that we share in the conviction which seems to have been general among those who have duly considered this subject, that our jurisprudence, especially in its practice, stands pre-eminently distinguished at least by comparative excellence; and which ascribes to this cause our superior national prosperity. Obvious facts, indeed, seem fully to warrant the opinion. In what country has such a spring been given to industry, where has she produced effects so extraordinary, where have her fruits been so secure, where have they yielded equal enjoyment? This testimonial, which cannot be impeached, forces on us the conviction that these

letters

letters possess much unintentional misrepresentation and false colouring. Though our systems, then, which boast (as we really think that they do) of much excellence, also labour under numerous and great imperfections, and though to point out and remove these is the most honourable service which can be rendered by wisdom and patriotism,—yet, when we see Mr. Bentham, instead of proposing to amend our institutions, loading them with opprobrium, and wishing to discard them altogether in order to make room for his new and untried plans, we are inclined to apply to him what Montesquieu said of our honest and ingenious Harington, "*il a bâti Chalcédoine, ayant le rivage de Byzance devant les yeux.*"

In the present production, we do not recognize the original of that exquisite picture which is sketched in the *Discours Préliminaire* to the *Traités de Législation;* nor a due observance by the author of his own admirable maxim already quoted. Were we to judge of Mr. Bentham by these letters, we should conclude that practical reform is not his province. Long fixed on the heights of speculation, apart from the business of life and the commerce of man, he seems too much to disdain our institutions, to sympathize too little with our infirmities, and to place our imperfections too much out of his calculation, for the proper sustentation of this character: but there is another mission which is more the element of genius, and leads to more expansive and lasting fame, to which this bold, acute, and deep thinker seems to have been appointed, viz. that of philosophical speculation, as applied to the province and objects of legislation, and the rules and procedures of jurisprudence; and to draw from this rich and productive source, those precious materials which may be employed at future periods by patriotism and virtue, in reforming and amending our institutions, as occasion may offer, and the spirit of the times may permit. To the ability with which he fulfills the duties of this high vocation, we have had opportunities of bearing our testimony, and we sincerely wish that we may have many more. If, reflecting on the uncertain course of human affairs, we can insure him no other reward, he will at least secure the exquisite enjoyment of which the mind is conscious when it is arduously and worthily engaged; and that which it derives from the grateful acknowlegements of those superior persons, to whom his labours will administer delight and instruction. We rejoice in the information which the following part of his address to Lord Grenville communicates:

'Your Lordship's invitation found me employed in putting, as I had flattered myself, the last hand to a work of a somewhat new

complexion on the subject of EVIDENCE; a work which, though of greater bulk than I could have wished, was itself but an off-set of a still larger one, not wanting much of its completion, and designed to give a comprehensive view of what, in that extensive subject, taken in all its branches, appeared fit to be done in the way of law. Of that off set, the object was—to bring to view the reasons, by which I had been satisfied that whether the Roman, the English, or any other system were resorted to, the established rules of evidence, occupied principally in putting exclusions upon the light of evidence, were almost without exception adverse to the ends of justice; a conclusion facilitated in no small degree by the observation, that there is not one of them, in English practice at least, that is not departed from, and, without inconvenience or suspicion of inconvenience, set at naught, and that for reasons that can have no weight or truth in them, on any other supposition, than that of the impropriety of the rule, in every instance in which it is observed.'

Instructively and on the whole pleasantly as we have been occupied by these letters, we cannot help wishing that the author had not made the present diversion from labours so much more worthy of his talents, and which would prove more permanent. May he resume them without farther loss of time! The reflection, that they will be embalmed in the elegant and luminous composition of the accomplished and ingenious editor and translator of the *Traités de Législation*, ought to be no slight inducement with Mr. B. to persevere in a career, in which he has already proceeded so far under such happy auspices. The revising and methodizing pen of M. Dumont, while it will relieve the author from vast labour of a kind to which we understand he is by no means partial, will in a considerable degree abridge ours, as well as add to our gratification and that of the public. We own that we cannot help feeling some regret, at seeing the choice thoughts of one who does honour to our country make their first appearance in a foreign garb: but we must forego our jealousy in this respect, since who will undertake to furnish a dress of home manufacture that shall be equally attractive and becoming?

Admirers ourselves of that philosophy which descends to the low state of man and adapts herself to his condition, while we, hold in aversion the maxims of certain modern patriots who profess to wish that things may grow worse in order that they may grow better, and who make no discrimination between imperfect patriotism and avowed corruption, we viewed with high satisfaction and lively gratitude the reform commenced and projected by the noble patron of the measure here examined, and by his colleagues. It was at least a halt, made in a road which led to ruin; it was a wheeling

wheeling about, a looking towards the goal at which salvation might be obtained. As friends to moderate and practical reform, we feel ourselves bound to pay a due tribute to those who were at once its supporters and its victims; for if such tribute and such consolation be denied them, who will again engage in or countenance the ungracious employ? While we abstain from expressing our sentiments on the fluctuations of political power, we claim a right to lament the retrograde movement lately communicated to the public mind, and which so nearly coincides in date with a recent political change. We must regret to hear it uttered by the voice of authority, that to correct a practice which, though antient, never ought to have existed, and the mischiefs of which have been enhanced tenfold by modern corruption, is to shake the throne of a free state, and to endanger the government of a wise and enlightened nation; that to make a man's real estate liable, after his death, to the payment of his debts, is to render property insecure; and that *to annihilate intolerance is to subvert a religion of charity.* We cannot deem those measures improvements which consist in a violation of right in our intercourse with foreign states; nor the introduction of internal measures which tempt the subject to improvidence, and which exclude from our notion of government every idea of paternity and benignity. Inauspicious, indeed, does the æra seem to be to the very semblance of reform! For the present, not only must the huge broom of Mr. Bentham be locked up, but even the gentle and wary hand of Lord Grenville must not be raised against a single abuse!

Jo.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For MAY, 1808.

EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 15. *Commercial Arithmetic*, or the British Youth's Companion. By W. Butterman. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Law, &c.

It appears to us that this treatise differs very little from those of Vyse and Walsingham, of established reputation; and, as far as we are able to discern, it does not possess any advantages over those books. The author, indeed, thinks that his publication was necessary, because preceding elementary tracts have been calculated more for the display of science than the instruction of youth: but here he must allude to productions which, to our regret, have never come under our notice.

R.W.

Art. 16. *A Grammar of the German Language*, for the Use of Englishmen. By George Henry Noehden. Second Edition. 8vo. pp. 468. Mawman. 1807.

Art. 17. *Elements of German Grammar*, intended for Beginners. By G. H. Noehden. 8vo. pp. 107. Mawman. 1807.

Mr Noehden's grammar is undoubtedly not only the most complete, but also the most correct guide to the knowlege of the German language, that has hitherto been published in England; and in fact it is the only work that can be confidently recommended to the student. Mr. N. is not one of those who, though they have never studied their mother tongue, yet conceive themselves to be fully capable of giving instructions respecting it to foreigners, and even of writing a grammar of it; for he has inquired into the nature of language in general, and has taken great pains to make the peculiarities of his own properly understood. The present edition has received many additions, corrections, and improvements, which manifest the author's continued investigation of the subject, and promise that a future impression will be still more distinguished by accuracy. We wish that he may also direct his attention to some general causes of the inflection of words in the German language, and of apparent deviations from the established rule, which he has mentioned merely as exceptions under their respective heads Thus for instance the observation, that the short sound of *e* is disagreeable to the German ear, after the letters *l*, *m*, *n* and *r*, particularly when they are preceded by another *e*, would have accounted not only for the mode of declining the substantives of which the author forms his second declension, but also for many of his exceptions in the other declensions, and for many peculiarities in the conjugation of the verbs. Notwithstanding the great number of irregularities, so much system and logic prevail in the German language, that many difficulties in the acquisition of it may be removed by an early attention to some general rules which grammarians have not noticed. The various forms of the adjective are easily explained, or reduced to one rule, by observing that the repetition of the mark of the gender is carefully avoided.

It is evident that Mr. N. has been very desirous of making his grammar complete, and enabling the learner to consult it on every occasion; and we have not observed any important omission: but he has sometimes taken too much notice of mere provincialisms, or universally admitted faults, and has not always kept himself quite free from them. In his attempt to define and describe the pronunciation of letters, to which he has, in our opinion, devoted too much space, he tells the reader to pronounce *Ring*, *Gesang*, &c. like *Rink*, *Gesank*, &c. which is decidedly a faulty pronunciation;—and would he really have us pronounce *herrlichen* like *herrli-en*; and *Gnade* like *Genade?* We admit, however, that he has suffered but few such reprehensible passages to occur; and we must make allowance for the difficulties attending every attempt to teach pronunciation merely by description and comparison.

The

The sections on the compound verbs, and on the prepositions, which are among the most intricate parts of the German grammar, manifest much ingenuity, and will be found very satisfactory. The whole chapter on the arrangement of words also distinguishes this grammar very advantageously from all its rivals, though the rules may perhaps be susceptible of still greater simplification. A proper attention to this author's rules will remove the most important difficulties, of which those who learn the German language usually complain.

We approve the omission, in this edition, of the Appendix which was subjoined to the former: but we wish that Mr. Noehden, or some other person equally qualified, would farther assist the student by a well arranged collection both of select German pieces and of exercises, to elucidate and teach the application of the rules of grammar; because all those, which have hitherto been published, are either thoroughly incorrect, or, from a want of proper arrangement, are unfit to be put into the hands of the learner.

The *Elements* form a short abstract of the Grammar, and contain merely the first rudiments. This short work is well adapted to its object, and is quite sufficient for beginners. Schw.

Art. 18. *Dictionaire universel des Synonymes de la Langue Françoise*, &c. *i. e.* An universal Dictionary of Synonyms in the French Language, collected by M. de Levizac. 12mo. pp. 427. 6s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1807.

The public has been long in possession of the *Synonymes françois* of the celebrated Abbé Girard, in which the minute difference, existing between words that at first sight appear equivalent and convertible, are pursued and unfolded with so much delicacy and clearness, as to render a work of mere verbal criticism highly interesting as well as instructive.—With very few exceptions, the whole of the *Synonymes* of Girard are inserted in the present compilation: but they are outnumbered by articles of a later date, collected chiefly from Beauzée and Roubaud, with occasional contributions by D'Alembert, Voltaire, Diderot, &c.; the name of the writer being very conveniently subjoined to each article.

Among such a variety of authors, a great diversity of style will naturally be observable: but none fully attain the ease and perspicuity of Girard; and, finding the legitimate field of synonymic elucidation already occupied, some have undertaken to explain differences between words which have scarcely any resemblance, or in which the resemblance consists in sound only.

Nevertheless, the additions are on the whole highly respectable; and we recommend M. de Levizac's publication to all admirers of French literature, even if they be already possessed of the original work of Girard. J.Man.g jr.

Art. 19. *A new Spanish and English Grammar*, divided imto two Parts.—The first Part contains all the Spanish Words, abstractedly considered, and inflected under their proper Heads. The second containing the Spanish Syntax, illustrated by a Selection of elegant and entertaining Extracts from some of the best Spanish

Spanish authors. By Thomas Planquais, Grammarian, Teacher of the Spanish, Italian, and French languages. 8vo. pp. 494. 12s. Boards. Law, &c. 1807.

As the construction of the languages of our southern neighbours is simple and uniform, little more is necessary to the student at his first introduction, than an exhibition of the regular and irregular verbs, with a cursory view of the other parts of speech. From this step, he may boldly proceed to actual translation; though the drudgery of continual reference to the dictionary will be materially lessened, if he make himself previously acquainted with the more common words and phrases, by the help of a vocabulary and well selected dialogues. With regard to these fundamental points, Mr. Planquais' Grammar appears to be unexceptionable: but in a work containing nearly 500 pages, information of a higher nature might reasonably be expected. We accordingly hoped to find, in the first place, a theoretical and practical elucidation of the use and force of the different tenses of the verb, in the proper application of which the chief (we had almost said the only) difficulty of the learner consists; the Spanish language having retained two of the Latin tenses which the Italians and French have wholly lost. A few more pages might also have been filled with remarks on the most striking peculiarities of Spanish phraseology. There was room, likewise, for a full exposition of the rules of Spanish versification, in all its varied forms, many of which are unknown to the rest of Europe.—None of these objects, however, are attempted by Mr. P: but the volume is swelled by extracts from Cervantes, Lope, Mariana, Saavedra, Isla, and Yriarte, which would indeed have formed a valuable exercise for the student, had they not been accompanied by a literal but rather incorrect translation. J.Man. jr.

Art. 29. *Evening Amusements*, or the Beauty of the Heavens displayed: in which several striking Appearances to be observed on various Evenings in the Heavens during the Years 1805, 1806, 1807, and 1808, are described, &c. by W. Frend, M.A. 12mo. 3s. each Vol. for each Year. Mawman.

We have been tardy, and remiss in our duty, in not having sooner noticed and recommended these ingenious volumes. At a small price, we find here prepared for those who enjoy youth and leisure, very easy and amusing Lectures in Astronomy. For every month, and for individual days, the particular state of the heavens is described; and when the reader shall have devoted ten minutes to the author's statement he may step into his garden, and verify the description.

Mr. Frend suggests several very simple modes of mapping the stars, of forming pasteboard quadrants, &c; and the account of these may be perused at any time, and at leisure. The book itself is not to be read through by a continual and strenuous effort: if so studied, it will probably fatigue: but the whole year may pass away before it shall be completely examined. A few pages daily,—those that are assorted to the respective days—should only be consulted; and then the utility of the work will be felt. Thus used, it will certainly neither fatigue nor disgust.

These

These tractates in some degree supersede the use of the globes; and in several cases they describe more than globes alone can shew, that is, they describe the moon's path, the situation of the planets, &c. They are also less expensive than globes, and more *handy*. Yet with the Nautical Almanack and the Globe every thing (we believe) may be understood which these volumes propose to make plain; and although we strongly recommend them to the public, we by no means advise that the *use of the globes* should be discontinued. R.W.

MATHEMATICS.

Art. 21. *Portable Mathematical Tables*, containing Logarithms of Numbers; proportional Parts, Artificial Sines and Tangents, &c. to every Degree and Minute of the Quadrant; and a Table of Square and Cube Roots to No. 180. By Thomas Whiting. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Longman, &c.

A very commodious and portable set of Logarithmic and Trigonometrical Tables, nearly of the same size as Lalande's *Tables Portatives*. For all common purposes, the present Tables are sufficiently exact, and they are much more manageable than the bulky Tables of Taylor, which in ordinary cases have no advantage over these: for where it is likely that a considerable error in observation and experiment may occur, such error renders numerical accuracy, beyond a certain extent, totally unnecessary and useless. D.º

POETRY.

Art. 22. *An Heroic Epistle to Mr. Winsor*, the Patentee of the Hydro-carbonic Gas Lights, and Founder of the National Light and Heat Company. 4to. 1s. 6d. Spencer. 1808. *

If projectors cannot succeed with their schemes, poets of the sly satirical tribe know how to manage projectors, and to administer that ridicule to which vain and over-confident pretenders are so richly intitled. Mr. Winsor's Gas Lights have here procured for him the notice of a poet of no ordinary powers, from whose mind the stream of poignant wit flows with more abundance and more brightness than inflammable air from pit-coal. The satire is directed with great skill; and all readers (Mr. W. excepted) must feel obliged to the author of this Heroic Epistle.—The poem opens with a *sublime* address to Mr. Winsor as 'the Hesper of Science,' and records the wonders expected from his hydro-carbonic gas in diffusing corporeal light; after which a wish is expressed for the extension of light to the mind, on account of the wonderful consequences which would result from it:

'O! could thy Gas with equal power convey,
To the mind's eye an intellectual ray,
With flame ætherial decompos'd from coal,
Illume and HYDRO-CARBONATE the soul;
Our streets, so long with walking Idiots curst,
Where "Dunce the second elbows Dunce the first,"
Might see parade their crowded path along,
A novel species—an enlightened throng;

* By Mr. Sayers, author of Elijah's Mantle.

E'en Bond-street loungers bright ideas gain,
And what is now a blank—become a brain:
Thy walk, Pall-Mall! might every evening boast,
A head illum'd for each illumin'd post,
Might count a sçavant tenant to each house,
And London rival Laputa in NOYΣ.'

When the poet's satirical car has been for some time in motion, it acquires a momentum by which it runs from Mr. Winsor in Pall-Mall to the upper end of Albermarle street, and stops all at once at the Royal Philosophical Lecture-Shop. Here the poet, standing up, reads a Lecture on Lectures:

'See from the INSTITUTION's crowded fane,
Where cradled science holds a gossip reign;
Where sage professors of hermetic lore,
To babes and sucklings dole a weekly store;
Feed infant genius, mewling in the lap,
With chymic caudle—philosophic pap;
Where LADY LOUNGERS (shopping laid aside)
Assume the pedant port of letter'd pride,
Quit beauty's soft pursuits, and pleasing cares,
For foul experiments on filthy airs;
Raise the Galvanic pile with moisten'd hand,
And bid metallic forms by heat expand;
'Midst chymic oxydes, fluids, fæces poke,
Now try the electric spark—and now the stroke:
See thence enlighten'd Misses come to prove,
That Winsor's Gas best feeds the flame of love;
And whilst poor Hero's hapless fate they mourn,
Whose lamp was trimmed with oil that wouldn't burn,
Say, if thy patent lamps, whose beacon light
Guides to KING'S PLACE Leanders every night,
Had from the watch-tower beam'd o'er HELLE's wave,
The lovers had not found a watery grave.'

Though, however, the poet digresses, he does not lose sight of the light-and-heat giving Mr. Winsor, nor does he take leave till he pronounces that gentleman's apotheosis;—or, which is a more appropriate designation, till he has converted him, after death, into *a patent planet*:

'And when—ah Winsor! distant be the day,
Life's flame no longer shall *ignite* thy clay;
Thy *phosphor nature*, active still and bright,
Around us shall diffuse *post obit* light:
Perhaps, translated to another sphere,
Thy spirit like thy light refin'd and clear,
Balloon'd with purest hydrogen shall rise,
And add a PATENT PLANET to the skies:
Then some sage Sidrophel, with HERSCHEL-eye,
A bright WINSORIUM SIDUS shall descry;
The VOX STELLARUM shall record thy name,
And THINE outlive ANOTHER WINSOR's fame!'

We have seldom of late perused a poem which, in so narrow a compass, has displayed so much point and brilliancy as this epistle exhibits. Mo.y.

Art. 23. *Beachy Head;* with other Poems. By Charlotte Smith. Now first published. 12mo. pp. 219. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1807.

In these poems we discover all the characteristic peculiarities, and much of the excellence, which distinguish the former productions of their admired author. The same tenderness and sensibility, the same strain of moral reflection, and the same enthusiastic love of nature, pervade all her effusions. It appears also as if the wounded feelings of Charlotte Smith had found relief and consolation, during her latter years, in an accurate observation not only of the beautiful *effect* produced by the endless diversity of natural objects that daily solicit our regard, but also in a careful study of their scientific arrangement, and their more minute variations. If this pursuit may seem less worthy the attention of a poet, and less calculated to excite those strong emotions in the reader which poetry should endeavour to awaken, yet we cannot regret a direction of the author's powers which has clothed the dry details of natural history with charms irresistibly fascinating to youthful minds, and has imparted to them an interest which can hardly fail to continue to the end of life.

The description of a *cottage-garden* is so natural and correct, that we seem to accompany the fair author in her walk, while she points out the various attractions of the place:

'Where woods of ash, and beech
And partial copses, fringe the green hill foot,
The upland shepherd rears his modest home,
There wanders by, a little nameless stream
That from the hill-wells forth, bright now and clear,
Or after rain with chalky mixture gray,
But still refreshing in its shallow course
The cottage garden; most for use design'd,
Yet not of beauty destitute. The vine
Mantles the little casement; yet the briar
Drops fragrant dew among the July flowers:
And pansies rayed, and freak'd and mottled pinks
Grow among balm, and rosemary and rue:
There honeysuckles flaunt, and roses blow
Almost uncultured: Some with dark green leaves
Contrast their flowers of pure unsullied white;
Others, like velvet robes of regal state
Of richest crimson, while in thorny moss
Enshrined and cradled, the most lovely wear
The hues of youthful beauty's glowing cheek.—
With fond regret I recollect e'en now
In Spring and Summer, what delight I felt
Among these cottage gardens, and how much
Such artless nosegays, knotted with a rush
By village housewife or her ruddy maid,
Were welcome to me; soon and simply pleas'd.'

We have extracted these lines from the first poem in the volume, called *Beachy Head*; which appears, as well from an incompleteness in the structure as from some small errors in versification, to have wanted the author's last corrections. The only incident introduced is that of a hermit, who lived in a cave at the foot of that tremendous cliff; having left the world in a fit of hopeless passion, and devoted himself to acts of charity, and who perished in a storm, while endeavouring to save some mariners from shipwreck. He is represented as composing sonnets correspondent to the state of his mind; and from one of them we quote the following stanzas, which strike us as very elegant, though perhaps too calm and particular for a love-lorn and solitary shepherd:

'And I'll contrive a sylvan room
Against the time of summer heat,
Where leaves, inwoven in nature's loom,
Shall canopy our green retreat;
And gales that "close the eye of day"
Shall linger, e'er they die away.

And when a sear and sallow hue
From early frost the bower receives,
I'll dress the sand rock cave for you,
And strew the floor with heath and leaves,
That you, against the autumnal air
May find securer shelter there.

The Nightingale will then have ceas'd
To sing her moonlight serenade:
But the gay bird with blushing breast,
And Woodlarks still will haunt the shade,
And by the borders of the spring
Reed-wrens will yet be carolling.

The forest hermit's lonely cave
None but such soothing sounds shall reach,
Or hardly heard, the distant wave
Slow breaking on the stony beach;
Or winds, that now sigh soft and low,
Now make wild music as they blow.'

'*The Truant Dove*' is by no means deficient in humour; and it possesses also the merit of uncommon pathos in those parts of the fable, in which the wife remonstrates against her husband's love of rambling. Its beauties, however, are not sufficiently concentrated to furnish us with a quotation consistent with our limits.—The old fable of the '*Lark's Nest*' does not display the same felicity.—'*The Swallow*' is full of grace, vivacity, and beautiful description.—'*Flora*,' though somewhat too technically botanical, is adorned with much taste; and indeed none of the poems in the volume can be read without pleasure.

We are informed by an advertisement, that it 'has been decided to publish biographical memoirs (of Mrs. C. Smith), and a selection of her correspondence on an enlarged plan, under the authority of her

her nearest relatives.' We shall receive such a work with satisfaction; but we will venture to express our hope, that this ingenious writer may not swell the list of sacrifices to the partiality of friends, or the cupidity of publishers. Often has an interesting memoir, which would have floated on the stream of Time in the shape of a moderate octavo, forfeited both circulation and permanency, and been sunk ere it was well launched, by being encumbered with the unwieldy magnificence of a quarto volume. Den.

Art. 24. *Legendary Tales.* By Eaglesfield Smith. Crown 8vo. pp. 139. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1807

These tales occasionally exhibit the power of strong description: but their general strain of narrative and poetry is exactly on a level with Robin Hood's Garland:

" Immediate orders *there were sent*
From chains for my release,
But ah! too late, for now the chains
Hung heavy on my peace." (p. 19.)

" The news *it* came,—my true love wept," &c.

" They barr'd her in the dungeon dark,
Where I so long did *lay*;" &c. (p. 21.)

For some time past, though the higher beauties of poetry have not been very frequently displayed, correctness has been generally preserved, and gross errors avoided: but we have lately had two or three such glaring examples of carelessness in the employment of rhymes, and technical negligence, as to demand exposure. The work before us abounds with faults of this nature. 'Dear' answers but ill to 'hair' (p. 34.), and is particularly offensive where the verses are so short, and the interval between the bad rhymes so inconsiderable, as in the stanza which is here used: but to make 'down' rhyme with 'mourn,' in the very next verse, exceeds all bounds of critical toleration. 'Earth' and 'death,' (p. 55.), 'fled' and 'bride' (p. 73.), are associated with the same perverseness, and these faults are perpetually repeated. The following simile, though at first sight it wears the appearance of plagiarism, is strictly original:

'Chaste though she was, as the pale snow,
That lies on Dian's *lap*;'

and the second half is not unworthy of its brother:

'Yet was she doom'd to melt in tears,
And mourn her dire mishap.'

The story of *Helen of Kirkconnel* is the last in this volume. Like most other beautiful stories preserved by tradition, it has been told in various ways; and in course the poet is at liberty to choose that termination which is most probable and interesting. The event, which Mr. Smith has preferred, is that the favored lover, at the moment of Helen's death, sets out in pursuit of her murderer, who leads him a chace all over this island, and then into Norway, Lapland, and Russia. At length—but we are not informed where—

'At length he stopp'd as lank as death,
And WILLIAM lank as he,

Prepar'd to fight as grim as ghosts,
A horrid sight to see.
Their bodies scar'd, and scratch'd, and parch'd,
They scarce a clout had *on;*
Their hair and beards were long and rough,
Their feet as hard as *horn.*'

William conquers his rival, and then destroys himself;—and thus is that story worked up, which has produced one of the most deeply pathetic elegies that is to be found in any language! We allude to the second part of "*Helen of Kirkconnel,*" in the Minstrelsy of the Border.

Den.

POLITICS.

Art. 25. *Six Letters of A. B. on the Differences between Great Britain and the United States of America,* with a Preface by the Editor of the Morning Chronicle. 8vo. pp. 48. 2s. Ridgway. 1807.

A. B. strongly recommends liberal and conciliatory conduct towards America, and shews it to be the interest of both countries to cultivate a mutual good understanding. Among other effects which would ensue from a rupture, he says; "If the present dispute should ferment into national hostility, America will manufacture *immediately* for herself; and it will be extremely difficult to prevent the emigration of your spinners, whilst the stagnation of your trade continues, even supposing it to be but temporary. The raw material she has already—the rice plantations in Carolina have to a great extent been converted to the growth of cotton, and Louisiana alone would grow enough to manufacture for the whole habitable world. But, supposing her manufactures not to reach *at first* to supply luxuries (which they certainly would not), she would manufacture cheap goods, would make it a national distinction to wear them, and penal to wear any other. I know that this was contemplated during the American Revolution, if the independence had not taken place, and that it is talked of now from one end of America to the other. This is a most serious consideration. The effect of such a spirit of industry, turned suddenly on manufacture, would not cease again upon any peace which the pressure of our arms might produce."

If we endeavour to terrify America by a display of our naval power, he observes that the spirit which once induced her to resist, and enabled her to succeed, has not evaporated from her citizens; that since her former struggle she has twice doubled her population, while her means of defence have grown in proportion; and that whereas she then had France only on her side, nearly all the powers of the earth would now be with her against Great Britain.—This sensible writer, however, decidedly argues that it is the true policy of our Trans-Atlantic brethren to maintain the relations of peace with this country. We sincerely trust that they may be brought to hold this opinion: we equally trust, and we believe, that such is the desire of this country; and yet we own that we fear the result of present discussions.

G. 2. These Letters first appeared in the *Morning Chronicle.* Jo.

Art.

Art. 26. *A Political Sketch of America.* 8vo. pp. 87. 2s. Vernor and Co 1808.

We are highly pleased with this sketch, which contains much interesting information, and is written in an excellent spirit The concluding passages will enable the reader to judge:

'How is Britain to conduct herself toward the United States? Her language must be frank and sincere, her actions just, and her policy, with respect to the party in power, must unite firmness with moderation. The aged soldier can still shew his wounds; the son still remembers the plain where his father fell, and the people still continue to say, that a nation, which wished to wrest from them their independence, can never be their friend. Let our manners then be conciliating, for the language of abuse serves but to irritate passion. Let us address them by the appellation of brethren; let us with one voice declare, that we are not jealous of their independence, while we consider the union of the two nations as necessary to their reciprocal interests.

'Americans, who inspired you with the dignity of men? Had superstition, or slavery, chained you to the throne of despotism, you would not have dared to lift the eye to independence. Your *liberty*, and the very model of your constitution, you owe to Britain. Form a close union with our enemy, and you surrender your independence. While you are yet free, survey the events of Europe. The republic of Holland is no more: The enemy burst into Swisserland:—"Will it be prudent to oppose them?" said the leaders of a treacherous faction.—"Do the descendents of William Tell," cried an old man, "deliberate whether they shall die as freemen, or live as slaves!" Death was the reward of his patriotism, and Swisserland lost its freedom! The Ragusans are a simple, industrious, and virtuous people; they are the foe of none, yet they are no longer free; in the fate of these republics, Americans, perceive that of your own.

'You have every necessary of life; you possess all the materials for a navy; your coast is extensive; your navigable rivers are numerous. Seize, then, these advantages, you are destined to be illustrious, and give respectability to your government. The crisis is momentous, it is replete with the destiny of America as well as that of Europe. The United States and Britain are combined in one fate, and will you then, Americans, cramp her magnanimous exertions in the cause of liberty? If she is overcome, liberty is the first sacrifice that our enemy will demand; and when the ocean is once navigable to him, will not the same voice which commands in surrounding states be soon heard in America?

'Our fathers, Americans, were brethren; we speak the same languague; our character and manners are similar; our respective nations are commercial; and they who keep alive your prejudices against Britain, are the enemies of your country. We must be united —Heaven accelerate the period when national prejudices shall cease, and when we shall be combined in the closest alliance of friendship and peace!'

The public characters of the United States are sketched with ability and great fairness. That of the President is not favourable, but we do not controvert its correctness, since the account which the author gives of that gentleman's views seems to be borne out by facts; and we agree with him in the tributes which he pays to Washington, Jay, and Munroe.—Much advice is here given to the Americans, which merits attentive consideration on their part.—Among other remarks, the writer recommends that 'The national *language* should be sedulously cultivated; and this is to be accomplished by means of schools. This circumstance demands particular attention, for the language of conversation is becoming incorrect; and even in America authors are to be found who make use of new or obsolete words, which no good writer in this country would employ; and were it not for my *destitution* of leisure, which obliges me to hasten to the *occlusion* of these pages, as I *progress* I should *bottom* my assertion on instances from authors of the first *grade*; but were I to render my sketch *lengthy*, I should *ill* answer the purpose which I have in view.'

Jo.

Art. 27. *An Examination of the Causes which led to the late Expedition against Copenhagen.* By an Observer. 8vo. pp. 47. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1808.

According to this writer, we have had a most narrow escape. Had not our armament arrived at Copenhagen at the critical moment, mighty Britain would inevitably have become the prey of her gigantic foe. 'Never, (says he,) perhaps did war present to this country so fearful a combination of dangers: never did the interposition of Divine Power seem so necessary in an instance where the common precautions of human foresight and defence hardly gave hopes of safety. Two months of cold and timid deliberation on the part of England, of debate and irresolution as to what was most expedient to be done in this fearful crisis, and all was lost! Two months of tardy and inadequate preparation, treacherous to its object and fatal to its accomplishment, and nothing was left to her but her courage, her internal energy, her means of defence on her own shores. For, all preventive foreign exertions, if indeed any foreign exertion could have been expected in her behalf, would have become useless or impracticable.

'After the month of September, not a ship, not a soldier, could have been sent,—in common prudence could have been sent—to the shores of the Baltic. No great and permanent object would have then been attainable: yet the fleet of Russia might have been brought from Cronstadt to Copenhagen at a still later period; that of Sweden, her generous sovereign subdued, rather than intimidated, might have been equipped at Carlscrona, and have joined before the frost in the same roads; and the ensuing spring would have seen arrayed in the Sound, along the coast of Norway, at the Texel, at the Scheld, the vastest combination which even fear can conceive, of military and naval means, prepared in the perfect security of the four winter months, and bending towards the comparatively defenceless shores of Great Britain, with every concurrence of favourable circumstance,

of

of wind and weather, that could render her means of defence yet more feeble.'

To us this seems very much a creation of fancy. Could not the presence of a small squadron in the Baltic have prevented this forcing of the King of Sweden? At all events, how was he to be forced thus instantaneously? Might not the junction of the Danes and Russians have also been prevented by the same means? and is it so clear that Russia would have declared war without the pretence afforded by the attack on Denmark? Let us, however, suppose the three fleets to be united; would they have faced a British fleet of half the strength? We are confident that they would not. As we have not been convinced of the justice and policy of this attack on an independent power, by the papers and speeches of our Foreign Secretary, we shall also acknowlege that our objections are not removed by this able and sensible tract; though it is much more in the style and manner of a statesman, than the productions to which we have referred. **Jo.**

Art. 28. *Address on the Maritime Rights of Great Britain.* By Sir Frederic Morton Eden, Bart. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 139. 5s. Richardson. 1808.

Of the first part of this tract we have taken notice in our No, for October last, p. 216. The measures of Government, which have been so much controverted in and out of Parliament, are here assumed as being not only proper and expedient, but in the highest degree deserving of commendation. On the part of the authors of them, Sir Fred. Eden promises that, when they shall have disposed of the *splendid subjects* of the Copenhagen expedition and the Orders of Council, attention will be paid to measures of internal improvement. Glad should we be to have it proved that this promise will be fulfilled; and we wish the Ministers better success in regard to these humble subjects, than that which has attended the more *splendid* acts of which the author speaks.

Sir Frederic argues ably and fairly in favour of the rule of the war of 1756: but the question now is, not whether that was in itself a just and expedient rule, but whether we have not by our own conduct precluded ourselves from asserting it. This matter is admirably illustrated by Mr. Baring in his celebrated pamphlet, in a view of the subject which is not at all contemplated by the present author. The latter paints in strong colours the inconveniences which our orders of council will inflict on France and its dependencies: but we regard these as very much magnified; and the most important inquiry is not whether the enemy will suffer, but whether our own measures will not recoil on ourselves in a far higher degree. All this is overlooked by the Baronet, though it is the very hinge on which the question turns. He speaks with great indifference of an American war, and places in a strong light the evils which it will occasion to that country: but those which Britain must inevitably experience are kept out of view. The strange events of these awful times have unquestionably blunted the feelings of the present generation; and it would seem, from many specimens of political reasoning which come before us, as if the intellectual faculties had also received a shock. **Jo.**

Art.

Art. 29. *Emancipation in Disguise, or the True Crisis of the Colonies.* To which are added, Considerations upon Measures proposed for their temporary Relief, and Observations upon Colonial Monopoly. Shewing the different Effects of its Enforcement and Relaxation, exposing the Advantages derived by America from Louisiana; and, lastly, suggestions for a permanent Plan to supply our Colonies with Provisions, and our Navy with certain Naval Stores independent of Foreign Supplies. 8vo. pp. 220. 5s. Ridgway. 1807.

A large mass of valuable information is here communicated to us, with respect to our West India Colonies, by a person who says that he has long resided in them. If, however, we approve the author's reasons in favour of a relaxation of our colonial monopoly, and if he indisposes us to negroe emancipation in our islands, by such means as he thinks are likely to bring it about, we cannot help regarding his apprehensions from negroe sovereignty in St. Domingo as in a high degree chimerical. We are of opinion that, in its present state, that colony is much less alarming to our power in the Antilles, than it would be if it were subject to France. Let our negroes be well treated, let the planters learn their real situation, let them act conformably to that knowlege and cause prosperity again to return among them, and we are convinced that we shall have nothing to fear from the neighbouring Black government. **Jo.**

Art. 30. *Ten Letters addressed to the Landholders and Merchants of the United Empire,* upon the present alarming and critical State of Public Affairs. By an Englishman. 8vo. pp. 62. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1808.

The writer of these Letters, which first appeared in the *Morning Chronicle,* is a professed advocate of the late ministers, and in course a zealous opponent of those by whom they were supplanted. He supports the side which he espouses with address and ability: but he is more successful in his attacks on his adversaries, than in the defence of some of the measures of his friends. The inhabitants of Buenos Ayres, it is said, would have received us with open arms, had we offered them independence. Why was not this course adopted? If we regard the obloquy heaped on the late Ministers by a venal and abandoned press as a disgrace to the age, we both regret and censure this departure in their conduct from the liberal principles which they professed; and however we may respect the genius of the head of the War Department, still in his appointment of a General we cannot hold him to be innocent. **Jo.**

Art. 31. *A Key to the recent Conduct of the Emperor of Russia.* 8vo. pp. 68. 2s. 6d. Jordan and Maxwell. 1807.

The conduct here considered is the act of his Imperial Majesty in signing the treaty of peace with France; and the key to this proceeding, according to the present writer, was *not* the necessity of the Russian Monarch's situation, as was asserted by Lord Hutchinson, who was an eye-witness of his situation, and who, we should suppose, was qualified to form a judgment of it. His Lordship spoke, also, in the face of Europe, and he has a reputation to be affected by what he

he stated. The pamphleteer, however, is of a different opinion; if we believe him, Alexander might have continued hostility without risk, nay, with a fair prospect of success; and it was Napoleon who would have been in danger, if the war had been protracted. How happened it, then, that peace was made between these two potentates, on terms so disadvantageous to the former? 'It was because Alexander fully expected, and was warranted to expect assistance from us.' This might be a reason for inducing him to overlook our interests in his pacific arrangements with his enemy, but why should he on this account submit to the fate of a vanquished foe, and allow his adversary to reap the fruits of a triumph?—The late Ministers are bitterly censured by this writer, because they did not lend to Russia the *five* millions (the sum was *six*) for which she applied; and he insists that, had the subsidy been granted, a complete reverse would have taken place. Analogy, however, does not favour this notion of the mighty efficacy of money. A subsidy of five millions did not ward off the disasters at Ulm and Austerlitz; and why should it have a more potent effect at Tilsit? When Bonaparte had *weathered* the severity of the Polish winter, (a much more formidable enemy than a British subsidy,) sober calculation augured nothing favourable to Russia; and hope was little cherished, except by those silly sanguine people who are swayed by the delusions and impostures of party newspapers and pamphlets, and who deem it patriotic to indulge in flattering visions.

The present author represents the Russian Emperor as extremely displeased with the late Ministers: but the superior attention paid by him to Lord Hutchinson, and the little notice taken by him of the Ambassador of the present Ministers, does not well agree with this notion. We do not join with him in arraigning the late government in respect to this part of their conduct. They sent to the scene of action a distinguished military officer, by whose suggestions and communications they were to be guided; and we cannot imagine any better course which could have been taken. **Jo.**

Art. 12. *Memoir of the Case of St. John Mason, Esq.* Barrister at Law, who was confined as a State-Prisoner in Kilmainham, for more than Two Years. Containing Addresses and Letters to the Earl of Hardwicke, the Duke of Bedford, Mr. Wickham, Judge Daly, Sir Evan Nepean, Judge Day, Lord Henry Petty, &c. &c. and Letters from some of the above Personages. Most respectfully submitted to the Consideration of the Commons, in Parliament assembled. 8vo. pp. 129. 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1807.

Every reader who possesses any share of feeling will peruse this Memoir with exquisite pain; he will here learn how much more easy it is to commit than to repair an injury; he will become acquainted with the grievous mischiefs which are inseparable from lawless rule; and he will behold an example of the cruel and inhuman manner, in which petty oppression plays with the feelings and sports with the sufferings of its victims. The narrative shews that the writer of it is an able and accomplished person; and it appears that he is also a member of a liberal and honourable profession. We are informed that he was arrested under a charge of high treason, and

imprisoned

imprisoned for two years, for no other offence than that of being related to the unfortunate and insane young man who was the cause of the deplorable tragedy of 1803 in Dublin. After this term of what the author calls 'intombed existence,' and usage during part of that time which the basest nature could alone inflict, he was at length, after repeated fruitless sollicitations to be informed of his delinquency, and to be brought to trial, liberated without the shadow of guilt being imputed to him. He acts the part of manliness and conscious innocence in demanding reparation from the authors of his sufferings: but the mild administration of Lord Hardwicke, which had inflicted the blow, evaded the application; and the benignant government of the Duke of Bedford resisted it, and gave the sufferer no hope.

Men of weak and sickly minds expected from the late Ministers many things which were preposterous and extravagant: but we own that we do not see how they are to be exculpated from the charge of neglecting Ireland. Peace was the achievement first in the mind of the illustrious person, whose loss proved so inauspicious to this country: but could not the emancipation of Ireland have gone on at the same time with this desirable object; and when the one failed, why was a day suffered to pass without prosecuting the other? We give a noble Lord all due credit for his labours with respect to Scotland: but surely to redress the ills of Ireland was a service which, if it promised less *éclat*, was more urgently demanded by humanity and sound policy. To sympathize with negroe suffering was popular in this country; and it required little virtue to support and patronize the cause of the Africans. We feel in the highest degree grateful to the government which abolished that system, for its magnanimous and benignant conduct: but we ascribe little merit to its partisans out of office. If their humanity had been as susceptible, and their beneficence as prominent, as they would have had us believe, how is it that they sit down tranquil spectators of the wretchedness and oppression of the sister island! To this subject, let all public men who pretend to worth and patriotism direct their exertions!

Jo.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 33. *Historical Review of the Moral, Religious, Literary, and Political Character of the English Nation,* from the earliest Periods. By J. Andrews, L.L.D. 8vo. pp. 410. 7s. Boards. Barr.

The observations made by this author on the early part of our history are those of a sensible and intelligent person, who had derived his information from the ordinary sources. The work affects no depth of research, nor nicety of criticism; so that it is difficult to imagine what lessons of instruction the author proposed to communicate, which were not to be found in other writers who had treated of our national affairs.

We perceive not that Dr. A.'s pages disclose any thing that is omitted in those of Rapin, Hume, Henry, and the generality of our popular compilers. In the latter part of the volume, moreover, we have not merely to complain that the information is ordinary, but must add that it is grossly erroneous. The author copies, and even exaggerates, the misrepresentations of Hume on the subject of the

grand

grand struggle between Charles I. and his parliament: the oppressions and tyrannical proceedings, which united the nation like one man against the measures of Charles, are here very much kept out of sight or smoothly glossed over; and a spirit of resistance, which a systematic attack on the rights of the nation called forth, is ascribed to speculative republicanism and puritan ascendancy. The ambitious and unprincipled Wentworth is exhibited as leaving the popular side, on account of the iniquitous designs of several of its most able and powerful supporters; and this deserter of the popular cause, who had become the most active and efficient instrument of those measures which he had so zealously and eloquently oppugned, is here represented as the "bulwark of church and state," and as falling a victim to malice and fanaticism. While we resent this miserable attempt to disguise as aggravated delinquency as any that is to be found in our history, let it not be supposed that we wish to vindicate the injustice of the doom of this grand offender: but Heaven forbid that our youth should form their notions of this period of our history from the lessons of Dr. Andrews. **Jo.**

Art. 34. *An Inquiry into the Principles, Dispositions, and Habits of the People of England*, under their different Sovereigns, since the Reign of Queen Elizabeth. With various Observations, Historical and Moral, arising from the Subject. By John Andrews, L.L.D. 12mo. pp. 186. 3s. Boards. Egerton.

This little tract, which comes from the author of that which we have just noticed, adopts the sentiment of the poet,

> "*Ætas parentum pejor avis tulit*
> *Nos nequiores, mox daturos*
> *Progeniem vitiosiorem,*"

and is little more than a comment on it. Our ancestors of the reign of Queen Bess were perfect models; and we have continued ever since degenerating: but our rapid decline is not to be dated earlier than the epoch of the treaty of Utrecht. Dr. A. complains that persons of a certain class travel abroad more than they formerly did, and import injurious foreign manners; that the great are seen more in public; and that ranks are more confounded in social intercourse than they were in antient times.

Among many just but trite observations, we meet here, as in the former production of the same writer, with others which do not accord with our notions. We do not wish to see our men of rank stay at home, lest they should be contaminated by foreign manners; nor are we aware of any serious evils which arise out of the modern usage of meeting in large assemblies. Dr. Andrews may very seriously entertain the opinions which he here avows; he may deem the matters to which he invites the attention of his readers important; and he may think that he descants on them ably, ingeniously, and profoundly: but we are sorry that we cannot give our sanction to so favourable a representation of his labours. Should he be dissatisfied with our not specifically animadverting on his errors and misconceptions, we might answer that we have forborne to do so because most of the points here introduced are fully considered by Mr.

Mr. Hume in his Essay on Refinement in the Arts, in which the subject is treated in his best manner. The sentiments of that eminent writer have ever since been those of the enlightened part of the public, on the topics of this little volume. **Jo.**

Art. 35 *Picture of Edinburgh*; containing a History and Description of the City, with a particular Account of every remarkable Object in, or Establishment connected with, the Scottish Metropolis. By J. Stark. Illustrated with a Plan, and upwards of 30 Engravings on Wood. 12mo. pp. 504. 6s. Boards. Edinburgh, printed by J. Stark, for Constable and Co., and sold in London by Murray.

In imitation of Mercier's *Tableau de Paris*, almost every topographical account which, for a considerable time past, has been given of any city or town, is dignified with the name of *a Picture*. However small the village, or puny the valley, though there be no feature of picturesque, and though all is taken by the square and the compass, still we hear of nothing but *Pictures*. The author of the present work has followed the fashion: but we must add that we have seen many worse pictures. He does not, indeed, like Mercier or Le Sage, lift off the roofs of the houses of the city which he describes, and graphically shew us manners and habits; nor like them scatter his satires and detail his plans of reform; he does not like them walk up and down the streets and lanes and courts of the city, with the authority of a censor, and the freedom and perspicacity of a philosopher: but still he gives much useful information, and tells us almost every thing that we could wish to know of this distinguished northern capital.

The volume contains a history of Edinburgh from the earliest times, comprehending many anecdotes and portions of Scottish annals; a description of the city and its antiquities; its political and civil establishments, such as the Courts of Session and Justiciary, the Faculty of Advocates, the Court of Exchequer, Convention of Royal Boroughs, Lyon Court, &c.: its municipal establishments, such as the Magistracy, Dean of Guild Court, Police, &c.; its literary and religious institutions; the Banks; public Amusements; Progress and present State of Manners; Population; Markets; Fuel; Water; Account of Leith; Objects of Natural History in the Neighbourhood; remarkable Objects in the Environs, such as Craigmillar Castle, Duddington House, Dalkeith House, Roslin Castle, Hawthorn-den, Melville Castle, &c.

It is well known that the metropolis of Scotland is one of the grandest and most picturesque cities of Europe; and that the additions to its magnitude and splendor have been so considerable for some years past, as to be almost unexampled. We are glad to hear from Mr. Stark that a reproach, also, which was once chargeable on our neighbours, is in a great measure remedied:

'The want of a proper regard to cleanliness in the inhabitants of Edinburgh,' says he, 'has often been remarked. In constructing the old part of the city, common sewers for conveying away nuisances of every kind were neglected; and for many years, even till lately, it was customary for servants to discharge all the filth from the windows into the streets, at a certain hour in the morning or at night.

night. In the building of the new part of the town, this convenience was not overlooked; and by the strict attention of the police, the nuisance is in a great measure removed in the old part of it.'

We notice under the head of *Charitable Establishments* a novel institution, which every great city would do well to copy; and from which morals, industry, and general happiness, would assuredly be increased, especially were it the fashion to give it support:

'The Repository is a shop or ware-room to which ladies in straitened circumstances may send for sale any curious, beautiful, or useful articles of needle work, with the price affixed, and when sold, the price is remitted to them. This delicate way of relieving the necessities of the fair sex who may require it, is certainly much to be applauded. The institution has been patronised by the Duchess of Buccleugh, and many other persons of distinction.'

The medical school of Edinburgh, which has now great and deserved celebrity, arose from very small beginnings, and is not of antient date. Its commencement was in 1720, when the magistrates added a few medical professorships to the former establishments of the university. The Royal Infirmary was founded some time afterward, and medical knowlege daily increased. Fifteen thousand nine hundred and thirty students have attended this school of medicine from 1720 to 1800.

From the perusal of this little volume, it is impossible not to observe the slumber as to improvement in which Scotland lay for so long a time, and the rapid general progress which she made when she fortunately awaked. In fact, sister Peg was for a very long while a disorderly romp, a miserable slattern:—she was ill-clothed, and begrimed with smoke, sitting in the kitchen corner, and doing no work:—but now, who is more comely, who more finely decked, and who attends to family concerns with more propriety? In short, how great is the improvement in all respects! This new state of things began to be so obvious as to excite notice about the year 1750. If it be asked, why did it come so late? the answer must be that not till then did the rage of political party grow moderate in that country. It was not at once that the effects of the union with England could be felt; a course of years was required. Parish schools had been established more than 50 years before: but knowlege advances in its progress by degrees; and the indirect effects of this knowlege are felt and seen still more slowly. It would be well that a sister kingdom would contemplate these effects, and reason on its own state from these analogies.

We cannot but recommend the work before us as an instructive manual.

Dr Tay. (jr)

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our steady friend *Veritas* has pounced down on an error which occurs in p. 405 of our last Number, and which will be corrected in our list of Errata for the Volume: but we can assure him that we were before him in making the discovery; though, alas! not time enough to eject from the letter press the words "*with David*," which, by the mistake of an officious assistant, were foisted into the copy; for the reviewer

reviewer of Mr. S.'s poem was not guilty of applying, as the words of David, a passage which belongs to the account of St. Paul's conversion.—After our remarks on the book which our correspondent specifies, can he want any *broader* hints?—As to his lamentation over Mr. Stone, who was reduced to the necessity of being hypocritically rich or conscientiously poor, we can only observe that, if this was the alternative, he would perhaps have acted a wiser part in following the example of the venerable Mr. Lindsay, who nobly resigned the emoluments of the Church before he publicly militated against its doctrines. Mr. Stone's avowal of his sentiments was manly, but it was made in the wrong place; since, however, with Francis I., he has *lost every thing but his honour*, by his boldness in the cause of Unitarianism, we have no doubt that his case will be considered. Perhaps it would have been more politic to have *suspended* Mr. Stone, than to have *deprived* him of his living. In these times, to exercise severity for matters of opinion is considered as an indication of imbecillity.

Mo.y.

The author of "a Plan for arming the subjects of this realm," noticed in our Number for March, p. 318, has favoured us with a letter in which he declares that he is 'an ardent admirer of the liberties of his country,' and that his object was to *support* those liberties, 'not to overthrow them by establishing a military despotism.' We arrogate to ourselves no power nor right of judging of the author's *motives*, and we spoke only of the *tendency* of his *plans*; that tendency we considered in the light in which we represented it: but we are not sorry to find him disclaim any desire of effecting a purpose to which, we certainly think, his measures would be subservient.

The note from Birmingham, respecting two volumes of Sermons, has amused us much by the ignorance which it manifests relative to the state of literature, and the importance which it attaches to the work in question. We beg to assure Mr. Y. that, while he waits in our anti-chamber, he is in a very large and in many instances very good company; and that when his turn for admission arrives, we shall receive him without any of that unfavourable bias which might be derived from the style of his printer's inquiries.

A correspondent's remark concerning Goldsmith's Almanac is appropriate to a Magazine, but not to our pages. The circumstance, moreover, has already been noticed in the daily prints.

A. L. has stated his inquiry so imperfectly, that we do not recognize the object of it.

X.Y. will appear in due course of time and opportunity.

*** The APPENDIX to Vol. LV. of the Review is published with this Number, and contains as usual a variety of interesting FOREIGN articles, together with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index* for the Volume.

Errors pp. 7, 8, 36, 58, 95, 98.